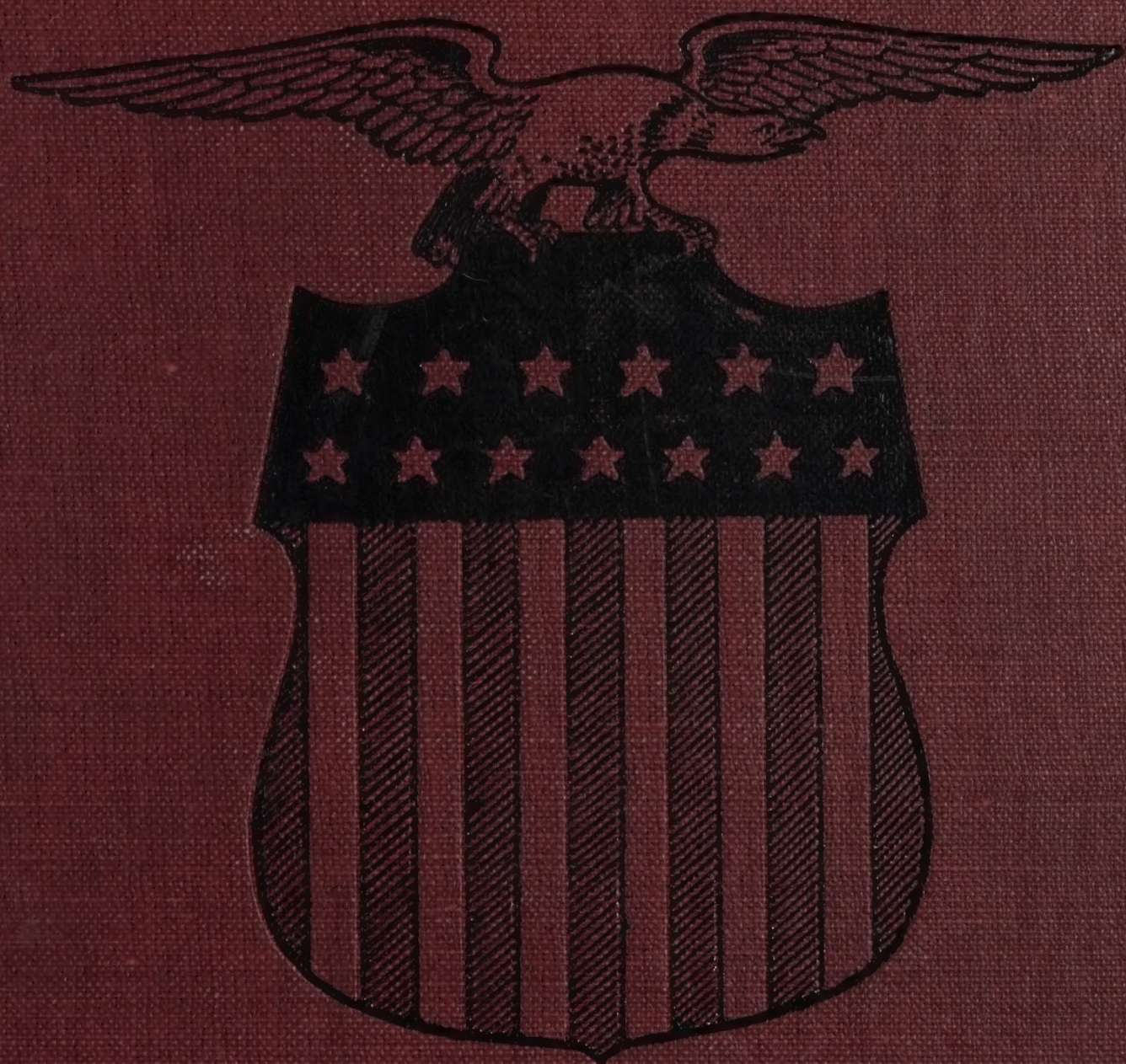


A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES



E.G.FOSTER



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A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

BY
Eli Greenwaldt
E. G. FOSTER,

Author of "A REFERENCE MANUAL AND OUTLINES OF UNITED STATES HISTORY,"
"THE CIVIL WAR BY CAMPAIGNS," "THE ILLUSTRATIVE HISTORICAL CHART," and a Series of HISTORICAL
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INTRODUCTION.

IN writing this book the author has held in mind the presentation of the leading facts in a clear, direct and interesting form. While clearness and simplicity of expression were aimed at, sufficient material has been inserted in the text to absorb the careful and conscientious efforts of the aspiring student.

In the organization of the book due regard has been paid to logical arrangement and development of subjects, and to placing many important topics, like the Monroe Doctrine, Compromise of 1850, Bland-Allison Act, and other events, in a form easily understood and remembered by the pupil.

The chapter rather than the topic is the unit, but the topic is given sufficient prominence to induce careful study of it as well as of its relation to other events.

An examination of the text will show that some attention was paid to gradation, the earlier events being treated in a simpler form than those of a later period.

Enough names, events and dates have been given to tell briefly the history of the Nation. The teacher must use discretion in selecting the more important facts for special study and in passing more lightly over those of less consequence. Dates in parentheses, as well as some others, while not of sufficient importance to be memorized, are of value in giving the sequence of events.

The author has made liberal use of maps and other illustrations. The maps showing the territorial growth include not only the general extent of territory acquired, but also

define limits by parallels, meridians, and rivers, so that the more careful student can locate the true boundaries by accurate description. The war maps show not detached and isolated battles, but whole campaigns, in which the movements of armies are traced from start to finish, following the plan of discussion in the text. This does away with the details of battle, giving a broader scope of the subject, and shows that battles are not generally accidents but the results of well-laid plans carefully executed.

The pupil should be encouraged to study the maps carefully and make rapid sketches of places, boundaries, territorial acquisitions, and movements of armies. This should be supplemented by more careful map work, outlines of which can be purchased at reasonable prices.

In addition to the maps and numerous pictures of prominent men and noted buildings, there are copies of famous paintings, which vividly portray historic scenes and events, and should inspire the pupil.

In the period since the Revolutionary War emphasis has been laid on the efforts to strengthen the Nation; on the course of events in our struggle for commercial independence from Europe, ending in the War of 1812; on the conflict between the forces of freedom and of slavery, terminating in the Civil War; on the reconstruction of the Nation; on the territorial expansion; on the financial acts and sources of national revenue; on the important inventions, and on the marvelous industrial and commercial growth.

The pupil who reads the history of his country should learn several important lessons: First, he should become a better and more patriotic citizen, because in studying the social, religious, political and military movements which have solved problems of the past and made the Nation great, he learns that

these achievements were not attained without courage, conflict, hardship, sacrifice, suffering, and steadfast devotion to duty.

Second, he should be inspired to make more extended and careful study of history.

Third, he should learn something of the "problems of the day"—social, political, financial, and industrial. From these he should acquire practical knowledge, which will make him a more useful citizen and prepare him to help solve the problems which confront him in life.

Suggestions for review are given at the end of each chapter, not with the thought that the teacher may exactly follow the questions, but rather that they may be used as the basis for a review of the chapter.

The author is under obligations to a number of teachers and superintendents for practical suggestions, and to several principals of ward schools for a careful reading of the manuscript. He is especially indebted, for a critical reading of the manuscript and for suggestions, to Dr. F. F. Stephens, of the Department of History, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri; and to Professor William MacDonald, Professor of American History, of Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island.

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COLUMBUS SIGHTING LAND.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER I.

EARLY EUROPE AND THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

The Early Inhabitants of America. To Christopher Columbus belongs the undying glory of the discovery of America in 1492. This marks the beginning of the history of the western hemisphere. The period before this time is shrouded in mystery. It is known only as we catch glimpses here and there through the traditions handed down by the Indians, or by a study of the relics and utensils which the ancient tribes of dusky people left behind. There is no written record to tell any of the history of the original tribes, where they came from, or how long they lived here. The most plausible theory of their origin is that they came to America from Asia at a time when the two continents may have been linked together, or that they crossed in canoes, aided by ocean currents, from island to island, until they planted foot on America.

MOUND BUILDERS AND CLIFF DWELLERS. A large number of mounds, containing crude implements and tools, have been found in the Ohio and Mississippi valleys, and at other places. These are supposed to have been the work of ancient tribes called Mound Builders, who used them for fortifications, for religious rites, or village defenses. In the southwestern part of the United States there yet remain great stone buildings, built in secure places or carved out of the rocky cliffs high up on the sides of deep ravines or gorges. These were the homes of the Cliff Dwellers, tribes now extinct. Some persons believe that the Mound Builders and Cliff Dwellers were races different from the American Indian, and that they were driven out or destroyed by a more warlike race. But the most careful students of these early people believe that both Mound Builder and Cliff Dweller were

simply different tribes of the ancestors of the American Indian, who differed no more from the Indian than the Indian tribes found on the continent differed from one another.

The Northmen. The Northmen, or Norsemen, were a hardy, warlike, sea-roving people who lived in Scandinavia. Centuries before Columbus discovered America, in barks, driven by sail and oar, they skimmed the stormy Atlantic, eager for adventure and conquest. They made fierce raids along the coast of Europe, and conquered England after many attacks. These sea-rovers discovered and settled Iceland, planted a colony on the coast of Greenland, and probably



VOYAGE OF NORSEMEN.

reached the coast of North America. Records in Iceland called "Sagas" tell that Leif Ericson with a crew of thirty-five men sailed southwest from Iceland and landed on the Atlantic coast in the year 1000. This was probably along the coast of Newfoundland or Labrador. He named the country Vin-

land. According to the story, other voyages were made to America, but, owing to the fierceness of the natives, no permanent settlements were made. Columbus had no positive knowledge of these alleged discoveries.

CONDITIONS IN EUROPE.

Europe Rent by Wars. Europe had for centuries been the scene of fierce and bloody wars. But little progress could be made when the energies of the people were given to warfare. A series of struggles called the Crusades were waged from about 1090 to 1291, in which tens of thousands of lives were lost. In these Crusades the European Christians invaded western Asia to rescue Jerusalem from the Mohammedans. Later, the Hundred Years War was carried on between France and England (1337–1453).^{*} Following this came the Civil Wars of the Roses (1455–1485), in which two rival houses in England were fighting for the crown. After the Crusades eastern Europe suffered from invasions by the Turks from Asia, who at last captured Constantinople in 1453. Finally there came the dawn of better days, the return of comparative peace, when men began to turn their energies to study, commerce, farming, discovery, and navigation.

Intellectual Awakening. Learning had for centuries been confined to a few. The great mass of the people were ignorant and superstitious. There were but few schools. The invention of the printing-press about 1450 cheapened books and spread the means of culture broadcast. Before the end of the century there were in Europe more than two hundred presses, printing books and pamphlets. This was the dawn of a new era in the world's history. The spirit of inquiry took hold of the people. They began to look for better things in government and religion, and sought new routes for commerce and new lands for conquest. But little was then known of Asia and Africa, and nothing of the two Americas and Australia.

The compass, though known for centuries, now first came into practical use on ships. The astrolabe, by means of which

^{*} Dates in parentheses need not be committed to memory.

latitude could be determined from heavenly bodies, also became an aid to navigation. The art of printing from movable types was invented about 1450.* A few, like Columbus, who followed the teachings of Aristotle,† believed the earth to be round. But the common people believed that the earth was a flat body, around which circled the mysterious ocean within whose distant parts lived great monsters ready to swallow ships and sailors who might venture too far from land.

Commerce with the East. The people of southern Europe had for several centuries carried on trade with Asia and the East Indies. Oriental silks, muslins, perfumes, precious stones, spices and ivory were exchanged for metals and other products of Europe. Genoa and Venice became great commercial cities and grew rich through traffic with the East. Regular trade routes were established. The merchants of Venice carried on trade through the Mediterranean to Alexandria, thence by way



OLD TRADE ROUTES TO INDIA.

Northern Route controlled by Genoa. Southern Route controlled by Venice.

of the Red Sea and Indian Ocean; those of Genoa, through the Mediterranean to Constantinople, thence through the

* The credit of this invention is generally given to Johannes Gutenberg, of Germany. William Caxton set up the first printing-press in England, 1471.

† The great natural philosopher who lived in Greece more than 300 years before the birth of Christ.

Black and Caspian seas to the continent, or down the valley of the Euphrates and Tigris rivers through the Persian Gulf. Another route lay across Persia from Antioch to the Euphrates river.

The capture of Constantinople and finally of Alexandria, was a serious blow to commerce with the East. Trade was not forbidden by the Turks, who now controlled the eastern Mediterranean and the Black seas, but life and property were not safe. Europe felt the burden, and eagerly began to look for new routes to Asia.

Portuguese Discoveries. The Portuguese were the first to seek a new route to Asia. Before the Turks captured Constantinople they had braved the Atlantic in their small boats, and had discovered the Madeira, Azore, and Cape Verde islands. Prince Henry, called the "Navigator," was the moving spirit among the Portuguese in creating a desire for voyage and discovery. He established a school of navigation on Cape St. Vincent, and brought experienced sea-captains and able teachers from distant lands. Farther and farther the Portuguese followed the unknown coast of Africa. By the middle of the 15th century they had reached the coast of upper Guinea. In 1487 Bartholomew Diaz reached the southern point of Africa and named it the Cape of Storms. On hearing of this achievement, King John of Portugal, filled with hope of final success, changed the name of "Cape of Storms" to Cape of Good Hope. Just before the close of the century (1498) Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope, crossed the Indian Ocean to Calicut, and returned with a cargo of the coveted spices and precious stones.

AMERICA DISCOVERED.

Christopher Columbus.—Early Life. Christopher Columbus was born in Genoa, a seaport town in Italy (about 1446). He was the son of a wool-comber. In boyhood he studied geography and Latin, and later gained skill in drawing maps and charts. "God has given me a genius and hands apt to draw the globe," he said, "and on it the cities, rivers,

islands and ports, all in their proper places." At an early age

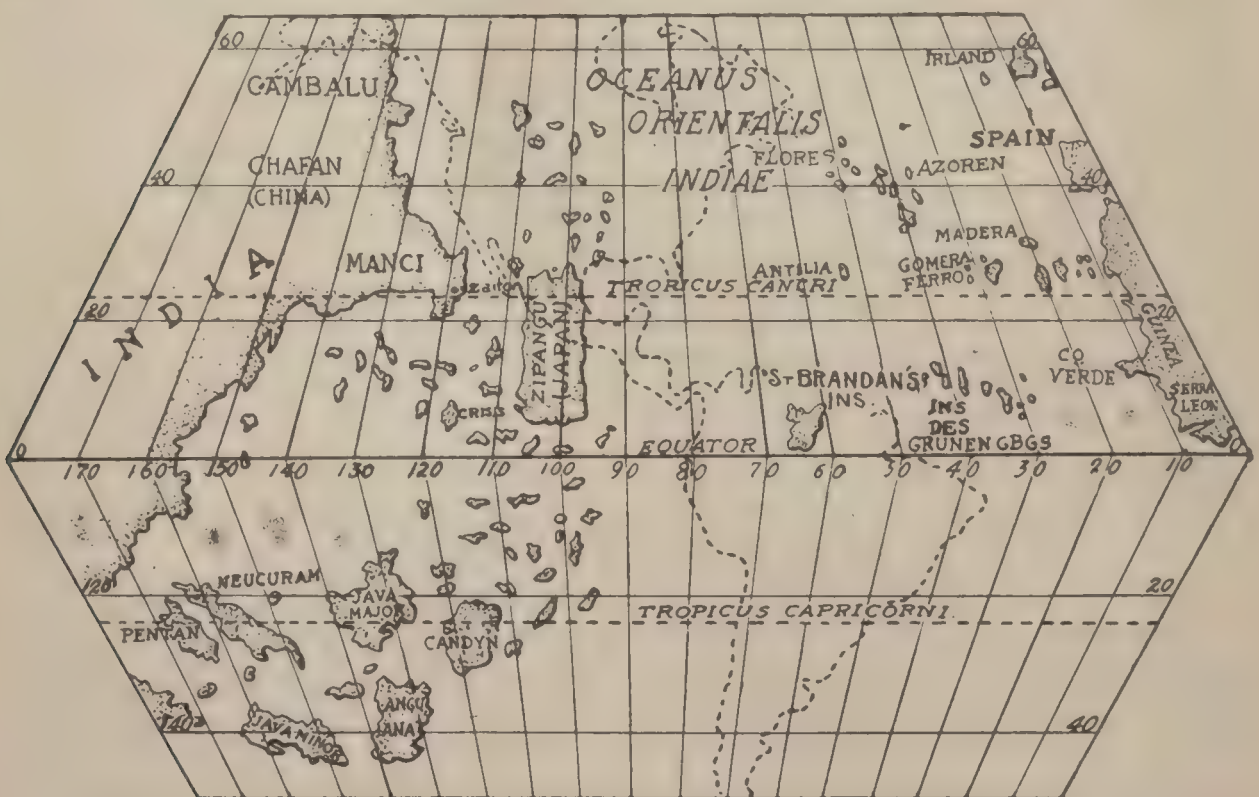


CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

After a portrait in the collection of Paolo Giovio, who lived contemporaneously with Columbus, and who considered the portrait a true likeness of the features of Columbus.

he became a sailor. He traversed the Mediterranean, visited England, and perhaps Iceland: "Wherever ships have sailed, there I have journeyed," he wrote. When in Portugal he married the daughter of a noted navigator, whose maps and charts after his death were given to Columbus. A new book written by Marco Polo after he had spent many years in China and the far East, giving a vivid account of those strange lands, deeply impressed Columbus, but he was influenced more by a map sent to him by the celebrated astronomer, Toscanelli, which he carried with him

on his voyage of discovery. The map pictured the eastern coast of Asia near where the western coast of America now is,



THE TOSCANELLI MAP. (Simplified.) America added.

This is the map Columbus had with him on the voyage which resulted in the discovery of America.

and included many imaginary islands. (See map.) Asia was supposed to be 2,500 miles west of the Canary Islands. Columbus believed firmly that the earth was a sphere, and that by sailing westward he would arrive at Asia by the shortest route. But he was poor, and had no means to fit out an expedition to test his belief.

Efforts to Obtain Aid. His heroic struggle for aid to carry out his purpose stamps him as a very unusual type of man. The story of his wanderings from nation to nation in poverty and distress, for eighteen years, entreating merchants and monarchs, monks and nobles to aid in fitting out ships for the voyage which ended finally in the discovery of a new continent, is stranger than romantic fiction. Still loyal to his native city, he applied to the senate of Genoa for help. He next turned to King John II., of Portugal, who secretly sent out caravels to seek Asia. But the sailors lost heart after a brief absence, and returned home. Disgusted at such treatment, Columbus left Portugal and journeyed to Spain, while he sent his brother to England to seek aid of Henry VII. All efforts had failed. The Spanish monarchs, Ferdinand and Isabella, were busy at war with the Moors (1492). Despairing of any help in Spain, he set out for France. Then it was he received a message from Queen Isabella, inviting him to court.

She listened to his pleadings, and offered him means to make the voyage. But Columbus wanted to be made admiral of the ocean and viceroy of the heathen lands he might discover, and share a part of the profits



ISABELLA AND FERDINAND.

from trade and conquest. The monarchs would not consent to this, so Columbus again started for France; but some of the

Spanish nobility implored the Queen not to let the golden opportunity slip away. "Small will be the cost of the voyage if undertaken," they said, "but great will be the regret if some rival nation should reap the prize offered to Spain." Messengers again brought Columbus to the court, and, complying with his demands, plans were made to fit out the expedition.

The First Voyage, 1492-1493. Three small vessels, the Santa Maria, Pinta, and Nina, were obtained. It was more



THE CARAVELS.

Pinta, Santa Maria, and Nina—vessels in which Columbus made his first voyage.

difficult to get sailors. By persuasion, and promise of reward, and finally by use of force, crews were secured,—about 100 sailors and twenty gentlemen adventurers. Columbus, who was courageous, kind, patient, a skilled navigator and schooled by years of hardship, was an ideal leader for such an undertaking. On Friday, August 3, 1492, the caravels set sail from Palos, Spain, on what proved to be the most famous voyage in the history of the world. The Santa Maria, the largest vessel,

was only sixty-three feet long, a mere toy compared with vessels of today. They sailed to the Canary Islands; then steered directly west. With no land in sight after weeks of sailing, the sailors' hopes gave way to fear. They tried to force Columbus to turn back, and threatened to throw him overboard. He calmed their fears and pushed steadily on. October 7th, they saw a flock of birds. Pinzon, who commanded one of the vessels, induced Columbus to follow the birds to the southwest. Had he kept on his course westward he would have landed in Florida. At the end of ten weeks, on the night of October 11th, Columbus saw a light in the distance. At two in the morning (Friday, October 12th), the cry "Land! Land!" was heard. At sunrise Columbus and his men landed on the low, sandy shore. Kneeling upon the soil with tears of joy in his eyes, he gave thanks to God. They planted the cross and banner of Spain, and took possession of the country in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella, King and Queen. To the island he gave the name of San Salvador or Holy Redeemer.* Columbus believed he had reached the Indies; so he called the natives Indians, and the country the West Indies, since it was reached by sailing westward. He sailed along the eastern coast of Cuba and Hayti, which he named Hispaniola. Here the Santa Maria was wrecked. From her timbers he built a fort. Leaving provisions and a small garrison in possession of the fort, and taking with him several of the natives and many objects of interest, after an absence of over seven months Columbus returned to Spain.

He received a royal welcome in Spain. Great crowds came to greet him and sing his praises. Those who once looked upon him as an idle dreamer now saw in him a great man of achievement. The king and queen bestowed many honors upon him and listened with amazement to an account of his voyage.

Other Voyages. After the eventful journey of 1492-1493, Columbus made three others. His second voyage, 1493-1496,

* It was one of the Bahama Islands. Cat Island, Turk Island and Watling's Island each claims to be the original San Salvador, but the weight of evidence favors the last-named island.



VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS.

was on a grand scale. The monarchs spared neither care nor funds in fitting out the expedition. They believed that the fabled wealth of the Indies was within their grasp. Men of all classes crowded around Columbus, eager to make the voyage. A fleet of three large ships and fourteen caravels was fitted out, and set sail in September, 1493. On this voyage he discovered Jamaica and Porto Rico, and visited the coast of Hayti, only to find the fort which he had built on his first voyage in ruins, and the garrison massacred by the natives. He coasted along Cuba, believing it to be the eastern part of Asia.

On his third voyage, 1498, he reached South America, near the mouth of the Orinoco river. Sailing to Hayti, he found a new governor in command, who arrested Columbus and sent him bound in chains to Spain, but he was released by the sovereigns. A new fleet was prepared, in which Columbus made his fourth and last voyage (1502-1504). He explored the coast of Central America in a vain effort to find the riches of which he had read in the book written by Marco Polo. Queen Isabella was dead. The crown had spent large sums of money, and no riches flowed into the treasury. Ferdinand was sadly disappointed; the people, too, from jealousy, ignorance

and disappointment, turned against Columbus. They said he had not brought the gold, jewels, precious stones, spices, silks, and fabrics, but had found only a "wilderness peopled by naked savages." He returned from his last voyage broken in health and spirit, and two years later died in neglect and poverty, ignorant of the fact that he had discovered a new continent. The people of that time could not see the glory of the future, or they would have ministered tenderly to every need and want of the man who opened the "sea of darkness" and placed a new world within the reach of civilized man.

Effect of the Discovery. Spain hurried a messenger to Rome to tell Pope Alexander VI. of the discovery of Columbus, and to get his authority to hold the new lands. Spain and Portugal were rivals. Both were eager for new commerce.



LINE OF DEMARCATION AND NOTED VOYAGES.

The Portuguese had already (1442) received a decree from the Pope granting them control of all heathen lands discovered

along Africa or any which they might discover "as far as India." The discovery of Columbus might, it was thought, bring on trouble between Portugal and Spain. The Pope, anxious to keep peace between the nations (1493), designated a dividing line, called the Line of Demarcation, extending from the north to the south pole, 100 leagues west of the Azores. All lands to the east of this line should belong to Portugal, all west should belong to Spain.

News of Columbus's discovery spread rapidly over Europe. People began to think as never before. The "Sea of Darkness" was now open to the vision of man. Soon its bosom was bearing the sails of the nations of Europe, each in quest of discovery, fame, commerce and fortune. Other nations, not willing to accept the Pope's line of division, made explorations and discoveries. Soon England, France, Spain, Portugal, Holland and Sweden were rivals, not only for the commerce of Asia or the Indies, but for the fertile lands of a new continent.

North America Discovered by John Cabot. Nations, like individuals, were eager to gain fame and territory by new discoveries. The first to sail under the English flag was John Cabot, a Venetian then resident in England. Receiving authority from Henry VII., King of England, he set sail in the spring of 1497, to find a northern and more direct route to the Indies and China, and to open up new avenues of trade which before had been monopolized by Venice and Genoa. By this route he hoped to avoid conflict with the Spanish and Portuguese. He discovered the mainland of North America (1497) about fourteen months before Columbus reached the coast of South America. He first sighted land at Labrador, ran along the coast southward for many miles, and took possession of the country for the English King.

John Cabot and Sebastian, his son, made a second voyage (1498), and explored the Atlantic coast from Nova Scotia to the Carolinas. Upon these discoveries and the settlements which followed, England based her claims to territory in America.

The New Continent Named America. America was named after Americus Vespucius, an Italian, who made several voyages of discovery under Spanish and Portuguese flags. His first voyage was made from Cadiz as pilot for Pinzon and Solis (1497–1498), who sailed along the coast of Mexico for a considerable distance. On his second voyage (1499)* under the Spanish flag, he sailed along the northeast coast of South America, following the course of Columbus and using his charts. He afterwards made two more voyages in the service of Portugal, passing along the coast of Brazil until he met great icebergs. The great length of the coast led Vespucius to believe that the land was not an island, nor, since it lay south of the equator, a part of Asia. He was thus the first explorer actually to realize that a new world had been found. On his return he published a pamphlet (1504) giving an account of what he believed to be a new continent. A German professor, who read Vespucius's account of his voyages, printed a little book, a treatise on geography (1507). In it he suggested that the new land discovered by Vespucius (South America) be called America. That discovered by Columbus was then considered a part of Asia. The suggestion was readily taken up, and soon the name America was applied to North America as well. Thus, through misunderstanding and without intentional injustice to Columbus, the continent was named in honor of Americus Vespucius instead of Christopher Columbus.



AMERICUS VESPUCIUS.

*The second voyage is frequently ascribed to Sebastian Cabot. Henry Harrisse in his critical work on the discovery of America gives the credit of the voyage to John Cabot

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Who were the Mound Builders? Cliff Dwellers? Northmen? Where was Vinland? Tell of the intellectual awakening preceding the discovery of America. What new instruments aided the explorers? What progress had the Portuguese made in navigation and discovery by the latter part of the Fifteenth Century? Who was Christopher Columbus? Give an account of his beliefs, training, efforts to obtain financial aid, and tell the story of his great voyage of discovery. What were the results? What evidence of the existence of a new world did Columbus take with him? Discuss the other voyages of Columbus. What was the Line of Demarcation? Who first saw South America? Who first landed on the continent of North America? How was America named?

Outline the important events in the chapter.

CHAPTER II.

PERIOD OF EXPLORATION.

SPANISH EXPLORERS.

Settlement of the West Indies. There may be some regret that Columbus did not reach the shores of North America. In the end it proved fortunate. Had he discovered the mainland, it is probable that the Spaniards would have settled where the English did, and thus have entirely changed the course of events in America. Nearly all the Spanish explorers followed the course of Columbus to the West Indies. Cuba, Hayti, Porto Rico and Jamaica were soon settled, and ruled by Spanish governors. From these islands as a base, Spaniards went to the southwest, to Mexico and north to the region along the Gulf, on voyages of exploration and conquest.

Florida Discovered by Ponce de Leon, 1513. A halo of romance clings to the name of Ponce de Leon. He was a noted Spanish soldier, a companion of Columbus on his second voyage, and, though old, he was still ambitious. He had heard a tradition from the Indians that somewhere to the north there was a land rich in treasures, containing a fountain whose water possessed the magical power of restoring lost youth. After receiving a charter from the king, he set out from Porto Rico in quest of the land of promise. On Easter Sunday (Pascua Florida, in Spanish) he came to a land bright with flowers. In honor of the day he named it Florida. He found neither gold nor the fountain of youth, but on his return he discovered the Bahama Islands. De Leon made a second voyage to Florida, where he was shot by an Indian, and died from the effects of the wound.

Balboa Discovered the Pacific Ocean, 1513. Balboa was a Spanish adventurer who had settled with others at Darien.*

* Darien was the name given to a settlement made about 1509-11, on the east coast of what is now Panama.

The natives of Panama told of a great body of water not far away. With a party of 190 men Balboa set out to explore the country and seek the sea beyond. After a difficult march, in which he had several encounters with the Indian tribes, he reached the summit of a high ridge. Here, as he gazed to the south, he saw a vast expanse of water which he named the South Sea. Descending to the shore, he waded knee-deep into the water, drew his sword, and took possession of the sea and bordering lands in the name of the sovereigns of Spain.

Cortez Conquers Mexico. 1519-1521. Cordova (1517), who was sent out by Velasquez, Governor of Cuba, explored the coast of Mexico. The next year Grijalva made explorations along the coast, and found the natives more highly civilized than tribes elsewhere. They possessed rich treasures and ornaments of gold. Reports of their wealth induced Cortez to fit out an army for the conquest of Mexico. He landed at Vera Cruz, and marched forward to the land of the Aztecs. Montezuma, Emperor of the Aztec tribes, was taken prisoner, and in a fierce and bloody war which followed, the Aztec warriors were defeated and their empire taken by the Spanish.

The First Circumnavigation of the Globe. The most daring of all voyages of this period was made by Ferdinand de Magellan, in the years 1519-1522.



FERDINAND DE MAGELLAN.

After crossing the Atlantic, he doubled South America, passing through the strait that bears his name. He then launched out on the South Sea, which he named the Pacific Ocean, since it was so calm and peaceful. Sailing northwest across the Pacific he came to the Philippine Islands, where he was killed in an encounter with the natives. One of his lieutenants (Sebastian del Cano),* completed the voyage by sailing around Africa by way of the

* The King of Spain gave Cano a coat of arms on which a globe was represented with the motto, "You first sailed around me."

Cape of Good Hope. This was the first voyage around the world. It proved that the earth is round, and that the land discovered by Columbus and his followers was not Asia but a great continent of itself, and that beyond this continent was an ocean vastly greater than the "Sea of Darkness." The voyage of Da Gama was remarkable, that of Columbus was even greater, but the distance sailed by Magellan was twice as great as the two combined.

Spanish Explorations on the Pacific. In 1540 Coronado went in search of the "Seven cities of Cibola," where gold and silver were supposed to exist in abundance. After wandering along the Gulf of California, he traveled north and east for hundreds of miles over a desolate region, and found no great cities or great wealth, but only the meager villages of the Indians. He traveled over Arizona, New Mexico, and Kansas.

Cabrillo explored the Pacific coast (1542) as far as Oregon, and Alarcon explored the Colorado river, 1540-1541.

De Espejo explored and named New Mexico, and planted the second permanent settlement within the present limits of the United States at Santa Fé, 1582.

Explorations of de Ayllon and Narvaez. The Spaniards, making Cuba their base, turned north to explore what is now the southern part of the United States. DeAyllon sailed along the coast of Florida and South Carolina (1520), and six years later attempted to plant a colony on Chesapeake Bay.

The story of Cortez's conquest of Mexico kindled the imagination of many a Spanish cavalier and inspired him to attempt similar deeds. Stories of untold wealth in the land of Florida led Narvaez to fit out an army of 400 men to search for the fancied treasures. They wandered for hundreds of miles without finding any. War, famine and disease rapidly reduced their number. On returning to the coast, their ships were gone. They built new boats and followed the coast westward. Narvaez was drowned near the mouth of the Mississippi, and all but Cabeza DeVaca and three of his companions perished. These four were captured by the Indians. After years of captivity they managed to escape, and wandered in Mexico

for two years, finally reaching a Spanish settlement on the Gulf of California (1536).

DeSoto, 1539–1542. DeSoto was a Spanish nobleman who aided Pizarro in the conquest of Peru. He had won fame and fortune. At his own request, he was appointed governor of Cuba and Florida, and wished to add to his laurels by exploring and conquering Florida. With an army of over 600 of the most gallant men in Spain, he landed at Tampa Bay, Florida (1539), and began a march of exploration and conquest. Taking with him cattle and hogs for food, and bloodhounds to trail the Indians, DeSoto and his men passed through what are now the states of Florida, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, discovered the Mississippi river (1541), and explored the region far beyond without finding the coveted treasures. Their treat-



DESOTO'S TREATMENT OF THE INDIANS.

ment of the Indians was most unjust and inhuman. Many natives were killed without cause, others were chained in pairs and made to serve the soldiers as beasts of burden. In May, 1542, the explorers returned to the Mississippi river at the point where the Red river joins it. Here DeSoto, disappointed and sick at heart, took fever and died. The survivors sought to save their lives. In boats which they built they went down the Mississippi, and at length reached a Spanish settlement in

Mexico. Hunger, war and disease had reduced their numbers more than one-half, and those that remained were half naked and almost starved.

THE EARLY FRENCH EXPLORERS.

Verrazano, 1524. The French also were eager to share in the advantage offered by the discovery of a new continent. They paid no heed to the division of the new lands between Spain and Portugal, made by the Pope when he drew the Line of Demarcation. A few years after the discovery of America, French as well as English fishing-boats were found off the coast of Newfoundland, catching fish for the markets of Europe. King Francis I. (1524) sent Verrazano, a native of Florence, Italy, in search of a northwest passage to Asia. He explored the Atlantic coast from the Carolinas to New England. Like the explorers of other nations, he took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign, and called it New France.

Voyage of Cartier. Jacques Cartier was the next Frenchman to make explorations in America. He made three voyages. In the first (1534) he discovered a gulf which he named the Gulf of St. Lawrence,* and then sailed around Newfoundland. Like Verrazano he proclaimed the country New France. The next year, on his second voyage, he ascended the St. Lawrence river as far as the present site of Montreal. On his third voyage he served as guide and pilot for Lord Roberval, who attempted to plant a colony in New France near Quebec (1541-43). Like DeSoto, in the south, he failed to find the fabled treasure. The winters were long and severe. Homesick and discouraged, the colonists returned to Europe. Roberval set out with a second expedition, 1549. All must have met a tragic end, as no trace was ever after found of them. In fact, privation, suffering and tragedy



JACQUES CARTIER.

* He entered the gulf on St. Lawrence day, and named it after the day.

in some form or other was the common experience of the early discoverers and explorers.

The Huguenots Attempt to Plant Colonies. At this time there were religious wars in Europe between the Protestants and the Catholics. Coligny was an admiral in France and a leader of the Huguenots, as the French Protestants were called. Wishing to promote the glory of France and at the same time provide a refuge in America for the Huguenots, he prepared to send out colonists to the new world.

John Ribault. In 1562 he sent a band of colonists under John Ribault, who made a settlement where Port Royal, South Carolina, now stands. He built a fort, which he named Fort Carolina, in honor of King Charles IX. Ribault, who returned to France for more supplies and colonists, was detained for three years on account of the wars. The thirty men who were left at the fort became shiftless and indolent. They hoped to gain wealth from the Indians, neglected to plant crops, quarreled among themselves, and were in grave danger of starvation. Finally, in a rude ship of their own make, they put out to sea and were rescued by an English vessel which chanced to meet them.

Laudonnière, 1564. A second expedition of Huguenots was sent out under Laudonnière, 1564. They landed at St. John's river in Florida, and built a fort. The next year Ribault arrived with new settlers. At that time, they were the only white inhabitants of America north of the Gulf of Mexico. Their greatest fear was of the Indians, but soon a foe more deadly than the fiercest of Indian tribes was upon them, and wiped out the entire settlement.

Massacre by Menendez. When the Spanish King heard of the French settlement, he dispatched Pedro Menendez, an officer of the royal navy, with a fleet to destroy it. Menendez landed, 1565, and built a fort which afterwards became St. Augustine, the first permanent settlement in what is now the United States. He then marched against Fort Carolina, surprised and murdered the garrison. Ribault, when he heard of the approach of the Spanish, went out with a force to meet

them, but a hurricane drove his ships ashore south of St. Augustine. Expecting fair treatment from Menendez, he surrendered; but the Spaniards spared not a man. Every one within reach, over 700 in all, was either shot or hanged. Over their dead bodies he placed these words: "I do this not as to Frenchmen, but as to Lutherans." Although Spain and France were at peace, France did not even send a protest to the Spanish government for such inhuman conduct. Nations had not yet come to value the lives of individuals as they do now.

The Massacre Avenged by De Gourgès. When the nation failed to act, De Gourgès, a French Roman Catholic, set out to avenge the death of his countrymen. Selling his property to fit out an expedition, he secretly sailed for America. He surprised and captured the Spanish at Fort Carolina and hanged his captives. These words, burned with a hot iron on a pine board, he placed over their heads: "I do this not as to Spaniards, but as to traitors, robbers, and murderers." Not having a force large enough to attack the Spanish stronghold at St. Augustine, he returned to France.

La Rouche, De Mont and Champlain. La Rouche led a band of colonists taken from the prisons of France and made a settlement (1598), on Sable Island, Nova Scotia. After seven dreary years spent on the dismal island, they were mercifully picked up by a vessel and taken home. Their punishment was sufficient, so they were never sent back to prison. De Mont, aided by Samuel de Champlain, made a settlement at Port Royal, now Annapolis (1604). He received a grant extending from the 40th to the 46th parallel, and named the country Acadia. This became the center from which the French carried on trade, discovery, and missionary work. The next year, Champlain ascended the Richelieu river and discovered the beautiful lake which now bears his name. For many years he acted as Governor of Acadia. So important was his work that he has been frequently called the "Father of



SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN.

New France." He penetrated the interior as far as Lakes Ontario and Huron.

When the Algonquian and Huron tribes of the St. Lawrence region were at war with the Iroquois, or Five Nations, of New York, the French aided the Algonquians. This alliance at the time was an advantage to the French, but in the end it proved disastrous to them. It made the Iroquois their deadly enemies and kept the French from extending their settlement into New York. Later, when the French and English were at war, the Five Nations became powerful allies of the English against the French.

ENGLISH EXPLORERS.

England. When America was discovered, England was a backward nation. She had but little commerce, and that was



QUEEN ELIZABETH.

carried in foreign vessels. She did not fully see the great importance of making explorations and settlement on the American coast. For eighty years after Cabot's voyages no attempt was made to extend her interests in America. But a new era set in about the middle of the sixteenth century. With the reign of Queen Elizabeth (1558-1603) came an increased interest in commerce and navigation. Discovery and invention received new impulses. It was then that Spenser, Bacon and the im-

mortal Shakespeare lived and wrote, any one of whom would have made a period illustrious. It was the most glorious age of English literature. The English navy was strengthened, and English vessels put to sea to explore new lands and to prey on Spanish commerce. The last half of the century was a period of growth and development, which fitted the English nation for the important task of colonizing America during the next century.

Martin Frobisher and John Davis. Both Frobisher and Davis made voyages in search of a northwest passage to Asia.

Frobisher penetrated as far as Baffin's Bay (1576), and returned with nothing but worthless stone and dirt. Davis made several voyages to these icy regions. Nothing permanent resulted from any of them except to leave the names of Frobisher Bay and Davis Strait on the maps.

Voyages of Francis Drake and Circumnavigation of the Globe. Of all the great men that sailed the seas, none was braver than Sir Francis Drake, and no other so dreaded by Spanish sailors. The story of his deeds would fill a book. We can get only a glimpse of his record as he roved over the seas in pursuit of Spaniards, taking their gold and silver, sinking their ships, and plundering their towns in Mexico and Peru. They called him the "Dragon." Such phrases as "fourscore pound weight of golde, and sixe and twentie tunne of silver," copied from the story of his exploits, give an idea of the extent of his piracy. In one of his voyages he sailed around South America, and cruised along the coast of Peru until he had captured a dozen Spanish vessels and robbed them of a million dollars' worth of gold and silver taken from the mines of Peru. He then sailed north along the coast as far as Oregon in search of a passage-way back to Europe. He named the country New Albion, and passed the winter of 1579 in one of the Pacific harbors. Fearing that the Spanish ships which were on the lookout for him might recapture his treasures if he should return by the old route, he boldly sailed westward across the Pacific, and reached England in safety. He was the first Englishman and the second man in history to circumnavigate the globe (1577-80).

Sir Humphrey Gilbert's Colony, 1583. Sir Humphrey Gilbert attempted to make a settlement on Newfoundland, 1583. The expedition met with one misfortune after another, and ended in failure. As Gilbert and others were



SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT.

returning to England on a fragile little boat of only ten tons burden, they were swallowed by the waves. His last words were, "We are as near Heaven by sea as by land." The voyage is of importance because it was the first attempt by the English to plant a colony in America.

Sir Walter Raleigh's Attempt to Plant Colonies. Sir Walter Raleigh was a half-brother to Gilbert. He was one of



SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

the most brilliant men of his age, full of chivalrous devotion to his queen and country. He was one of the first to see that the planting of English colonies in America would not only check the increasing power of Spain, but would also add to the power and greatness of England. Raleigh took up the task laid down by Gilbert. Being a favorite of the queen, he obtained a liberal grant (1584), and sent out two ships under

Barlow and Amidas to examine the country and report to him. They landed at Roanoke Island, off the coast, the present State of North Carolina. Upon their return they gave a glowing account of the country, which received the name of Virginia, in honor of the Virgin Queen. In 1585 Raleigh sent out 108 emigrants under Ralph Lane, who settled on Roanoke Island. The Indians became hostile, and threatened to destroy the colonists. When Francis Drake stopped on one of his homeward voyages to see how the colony was prospering, they returned home with him. With them they took two plants, the potato* and the tobacco, which have since become noted, one to supply the wants of man as a food, the other as a narcotic. In the face of discouraging circumstances Raleigh sent out a second colony (1587) of men and women under John

* The common potato is an American vegetable. The Spaniards are supposed to have brought it to Virginia from some other part of the continent. For a long time it was but little liked. A farmer at Hadley, Massachusetts, who raised eight bushels in 1763, thought he had a large crop. Later, the potatoes were largely grown and much liked in Ireland, and since then have been called the Irish potato.

White as Governor. They also settled on Roanoke Island. Here was born Virginia Dare, the first child born to English parents in America. She was a grandchild to Governor White, who returned to England soon after her birth for supplies and more colonists. Spain was then planning an invasion of England. Every ship and sailor available was needed to fight the Spanish, and White could not return to his colony for three years. When he did return not a soul was found, though he searched in vain for the "Lost Colony."

In his efforts to plant a colony, Raleigh had spent over \$200,000, an amount which for that time would be equivalent to over a million dollars now. Yet after the death of Queen Elizabeth he was imprisoned on a false charge of treason, and finally executed.

The "Invincible Armada." England now became the leading Protestant power. While the Protestant Netherlands were fighting for independence from Spain, England helped the Dutch and thus became a party to the war with Spain. The Spanish collected a great fleet of 132 vessels, called the Invincible Armada, expecting to land a great army on English soil and crush the English nation. But England collected her navy, which, aided by a storm, completely defeated the Spanish Armada in the English Channel. The Spanish lost over half their vessels. The effect of this victory on American history was great. England could plant colonies on the Atlantic coast without fear that Spain would destroy them.

Other English Explorers. Bartholomew Gosnold in 1619 shortened the route across the Atlantic. Instead of sailing by way of the Canaries and West Indies, he went directly across the ocean. He landed on a cape, which he named Cape Cod, and explored the coast of New England. Martin Pring (1603) and George Weymouth (1605) both made voyages to New England, traded with the Indians, and wrote glowing accounts of the country.

The cost of planting colonies proving too great for individuals, the work was soon undertaken on a larger scale by companies of English merchants.

DUTCH AND PORTUGUESE EXPLORERS.

Henry Hudson. Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of the Dutch East India Company, went in search of



HENRY HUDSON.

the Northwest Passage to India. Great masses of ice caused him to turn westward and then skirt southward along the coast of Acadia and New England to Cape Cod. Turning southwest he discovered Delaware Bay. He then sailed along the coast of New Jersey, entered New York harbor and discovered the Hudson river in 1609. He ascended that noble stream as far as the present site of Albany. The Dutch

called it the North River, but the name was soon changed to the Hudson. (The Delaware they called the South River.) Upon the strength of this discovery the Dutch laid claim to the land from the Delaware Bay to the Connecticut river, and named the country New Netherland.

Portuguese. In addition to the Portuguese already referred to, there were others who made explorations. Cabral, while on a voyage to India, reached the coast of Brazil, 1500, and claimed the country for his King as being east of the Line of Demarcation. The same year Gaspar Cortereal sailed along the coast of North America, skirting the shores of Nova Scotia and Labrador.

Rule to Make Claims to Territory Good. We have seen that five nations had made discoveries and explorations in America up to the year 1609. These were Spain, France, England, Portugal, and Holland. At a later date Sweden and Russia gained a foothold. With so many nations anxious to claim the new territory, much confusion and trouble was bound to follow. The Indians were in possession of America, but the European nations claimed that they had a right to all new territory which they discovered and which was not already occupied by Christian nations. Two things were necessary to make good a claim: *The nation must be the first to discover*

the country, and must settle it within a reasonable time. There was no one to enforce this "Law of Nations" but the nation itself, and conflicting claims were sometimes settled by war.

Results of a Century of Discovery and Exploration. By the year 1609, the French had sailed along the Atlantic coast from Carolina to Newfoundland. They had discovered and named the gulf and river St. Lawrence and Lake Champlain, and explored much of the country bordering these bodies of water. They had made a settlement in Florida, which was destroyed by the Spaniards.

The English had made discoveries and explorations from Nova Scotia to Florida, and attempted to plant colonies in the regions they had explored; but it is a striking fact that when the sixteenth century closed (more than a hundred years after the discovery of America), not an English or a French settler remained alive in America, though many rested in obscure graves.

The Dutch had discovered the Hudson river and Delaware Bay, and had explored the New England coast.

The Spaniards had thus far accomplished most. They had explored a large part of the region they called Florida, and had planted two permanent settlements within the present limits of the United States,—one at St. Augustine, the other at Santa Fé. They had conquered Mexico and Peru, and ruled over the West Indies. It then seemed that Spain would become supreme in America.

Claims to Territory, 1609. The Spaniards, 1609, claimed not only the territory which they had discovered, but all the country west of the Line of Demarcation.

The English claimed the land from Nova Scotia to Florida, from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

The Dutch claimed the territory between the Connecticut and the Delaware rivers.

The French claimed New France, or the region drained by the St. Lawrence.

There were no definite limits to any territories at that time. The vast interior region was unexplored. The nations set

at work to strengthen their claims by sending out new colonists. This period is called the period of "Settlement and Development of the Colonies."

Before studying it we must learn something of the country and of the Indians, who were the greatest obstacle in the way of settlement.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Where were the Spanish settlements first made? Why? How did Florida come to be discovered and named? Tell of Balboa and Panama, of the conquest of Mexico by Cortez, of the great voyage of Magellan. What did it prove? What was the object of the DeNarvaez expeditions? Tell of the explorations of DeSoto. What was the extent of Spanish Florida? When and by whom was St. Augustine founded? What is the city like now?

In what part of the New World did the French first make discoveries and explorations? What led them so far north? Who gave the name New France to this country? Tell of the French colony in Spanish Florida. Who founded Port Royal, Nova Scotia? Who explored the St. Lawrence valley? Who founded Quebec? Tell of the explorations of Champlain, and his relations with the Indians.

Why was England slow in making settlements in America? What changes in England fitted her for planting colonies? Where did the Cabots discover land? What voyage was made by Sir Francis Drake? Who was Queen of England at this time? Tell about the relations of England and Spain. Who was Sir Humphrey Gilbert? Sir Walter Raleigh? What colony did he found? Tell of tobacco and the potato. In what way was the defeat of the Spanish Armada a benefit to America? Who were Gosnold and Pring?

What led the Dutch to take part in the opening of the New World? What was the Dutch East India Company? What parts of North America did Henry Hudson discover? What five nations took part in explorations in America? What territory did each of the five nations claim? What two things were necessary to make good a claim for territory?

On a map locate the countries explored.

Make separate tables for the chief Spanish, French, English and Portuguese explorers, following the plan given below :

SPANISH EXPLORERS AND DISCOVERERS.

<i>Person</i>	<i>Time</i>	<i>Place and Remarks</i>
Columbus	1492	San Salvador, Cuba, and Hayti.
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.....

CHAPTER III.

THE CONTINENT AND THE INDIANS.

THE CONTINENT.

Mountain and River Systems of North America. In the western part of North America is a great mountain system, extending parallel to the coast from Alaska to the Isthmus of Panama. Beyond the crest of these mountains is the great Pacific slope with its peaks and crags, its broken and barren wastes alternating with beautiful fertile valleys, and garden and orchard tracts of unusual richness.

In the eastern part of the continent is another mountain system, the Appalachian, extending parallel with the coast. To the east of its crest is the Atlantic slope with its many mountain streams carrying an abundant supply of water, which, together with its mineral deposits and fertile soil, have made it the land of varied industries,—agriculture, mining, manufacturing, commerce. Here are the historic valleys where the English and Dutch and Swedes began those settlements which became the thirteen English colonies. Between the two mountain systems is the Great Central Plain, whose vast areas of fertile lands forming the world's greatest granary are traversed by a great network of streams, from mountain crest to mountain crest. These find outlet: 1st, through the rivers and lakes of the north into the Arctic ocean; 2nd, through the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence river into the Atlantic; and 3rd, through the Mississippi and other streams into the Gulf of Mexico. A careful study of the mountain ranges and river systems of North America will reveal many points of interest, too numerous even to mention here, but it should be constantly remembered that the mountains, plains, forests, rivers and climate have an important bearing on the history of the nation.

The Country. The country was a great wilderness from

the Atlantic to beyond the Mississippi, and from the Gulf to the Great Lakes. Here and there were open fields where the Indians planted tobacco or corn. Fowl, fish and game were plentiful, especially buffalo, deer, wild turkeys and wild pigeons. Beyond the wilderness were the prairies and beyond the prairies were the desert regions. There were no cities or towns, houses or barns, roads or railroads. The works of man were nowhere to be seen. Nature was supreme. There were narrow trails made by Indians or buffaloes. Some of these later became routes for wagon-roads or railroads. The numerous rivers that wind through mountain and plain then floated the birch canoe or Indian dugout, just as they today form the highways for the white man's boats.

That part of America which became the United States had a climate similar to that of Europe. Its soil was fertile, and would produce the same trees, fruits, plants and crops as the soil of Europe, and in addition it would yield corn, cotton, rice, and sugar-cane. This was indeed an inviting field for sturdy, thrifty Europeans.

INDIANS.

The Indians. At the time of the discovery of America, Indians were found in all parts of the country. The Spaniards found them in South America and Mexico. DeSoto found them in Florida and Coronado met them in the Southwest. The English found them all along the Atlantic coast, and Champlain and Cartier met them in Canada. Wherever the white man went he had to guard himself against the attacks of the "Red men of the forests," as the Indians were called. They were not always found in great numbers, but they were likely to be found at any time or place. The number then in America is not known; but it has been estimated at about 180,000 east of the Mississippi river and at 300,000 in the whole of North America. The Indian population today is greater than it is supposed to have been over four centuries ago. The government reports of 1909 place the number in the United States alone at 300,121.

PERSONAL APPEARANCE. The Indians as a race were tall, erect, well-built, and of a copper color. They had high cheek-bones, small, black and deep-set eyes, and Roman noses. Their hair was coarse, black, and straight, and the hands of both men and women were small. The full-blood Indian of today is quite similar in appearance to those of centuries ago.

MODE OF LIFE. But few of them had fixed dwelling-places. The woods were their home. Rude huts or tents, called wigwams, gave them shelter from the storm and cold. These were generally made by fastening sticks together at the top and spreading them out below, in the form of a cone, and covering them with skins, bark, or mats. Sometimes the structure was a long house with twenty or thirty stalls and with a door at each end. Each stall sheltered a family. The Indians were often grouped in villages surrounded by stockades made of posts, to protect them from the enemy. The Pueblos were semi-civilized, and lived in permanent villages. The



RUSHING BEAR, A TYPICAL INDIAN CHIEF.



INDIAN WIGWAM.

houses were made of sun-dried brick or stone. Many of these are now in ruins, but some are still occupied. The Indian lived by hunting and fishing, and sometimes he engaged in crude agriculture, raising corn, tobacco, pumpkins, and beans. The Indian man did the hunting, fishing, and fighting, and his squaw did the work. She raised the crops, built the wigwams, cured the skins, wove the mats, cooked the meats, and cared for the papooses.

The Indian taught the white man the value of corn, and introduced to him the use of tobacco.

WEAPONS, DRESS, AND PROPERTY. The Indian's weapons were bows and arrows, tomahawks, war-clubs, and axes made

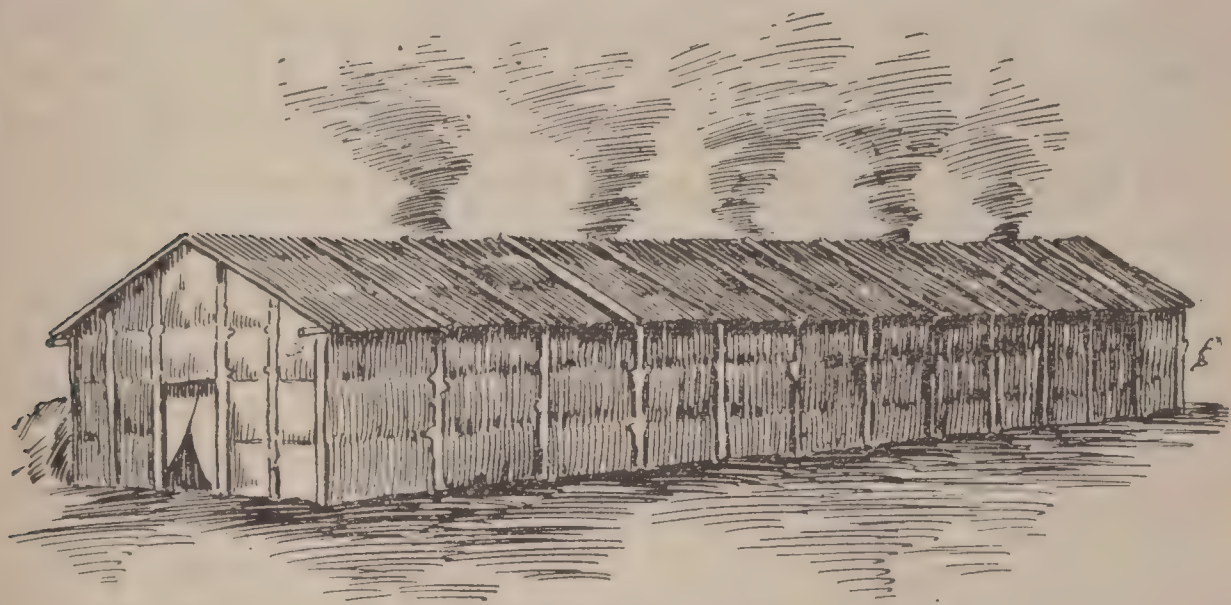


1. QUIVER AND BOW-CASE. 2. FLINT-TIPPED ARROW. 3. STONE AXE. 4. WAR-CLUB (stone head, rawhide handle). 5. FLINT-BLADE KNIFE. 6. FLINT-HEADED SPEAR. 7. HOE (made of a conch-shell.) 8. SLING, for carrying quiver and bow-case.

of stones, shaped like a hammer or ax and fastened to a wooden handle. The arrows were tipped with sharp-edged flint. The Indian had no animals except the dog. The horse, which became of great use to him in later times, was brought from Europe. The Indian's dress was very scant. In summer it was almost nothing. In winter it consisted chiefly of deerskins and buffalo-hides. On his feet he wore moccasins, a kind of shoes made of buckskin, which were ideal footwear for hunting, as they were soft, durable, and noiseless. He wore a head-dress made of

feathers, and ornamented himself with paint, beads, and with

teeth of animals. The land was of value to him only as a hunting-ground. As game became scarce in one place he moved to another. He was master of lake and stream, and glided with ease over the waterways in his canoes. He resented the coming of the white man, for he knew that it meant the loss of his hunting-grounds.



SENECA LONG HOUSE.

CHARACTERISTICS. The prairie and forest were his home. Nature was his school. He studied it as a book. He could track the wild animal to its den, imitate the sound of bird and beast, and follow trails no white man could see. His hearing was keen. He was a faithful friend but a cruel enemy. He never forgave a wrong. He talked little, seldom laughed and rarely cried.

His favorite method of fighting was to lie in ambush or steal up behind the enemy, and strike him down with tomahawk, and scalp him. In battle he asked no quarter and gave none. When his fighting blood was stirred he was fierce and cruel. Not satisfied merely to kill his victims, he sometimes would torture them in the most inhuman manner, and dance for joy as he watched their agonies.

RELIGION. The Indian's idea of religion was not well defined. He worshipped nature around him. He saw his God in sun, moon, stars, in the silent lake and flowing river. For him birds, beasts and reptiles had spirits. He worshipped the

evil spirits as well as the good ones, believing that they would harm him if he should neglect them. His heaven was the "Happy Hunting Ground" to which with his bow and arrow he expected to go after death, and live forever.

GOVERNMENT AND FAMILIES. A clan was made up of those supposed to be descendants of the same female ancestor. Several clans speaking the same language made up an Indian tribe. Every clan elected its own "Sachem" or ruler. A council made up of Sachems ruled the tribe. Sometimes tribes elected a head war-chief. All matters of importance were brought before the council of Sachems.

The Indians of the United States are divided into great families composed of tribes speaking a related language. A number of tribes constitute a family, the most important of which are the Algonquian, Iroquoian, Muskogean, Siouan, Caddoan, and Shoshonean.*

The Algonquian family was the largest. It was spread over a great area, extending from the Atlantic Ocean to the Rocky Mountains. The English met first the tribes of this family, the Delawares, Shawnees, Powhattans, Pequots, Massachusetts, and Narragansetts. The Ojibways, Arapahoes and Cheyennes also belong to this family.

The Iroquoian family was found in northern New York, westward along the Great Lakes, and in the Carolinas and other parts of the South. The tribes of this family were very warlike and subdued many Algonquian tribes. The Mohawks, Senecas, Cayugas, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cherokees and Wyandots belong to this family.

The Muskohegean family lived in the southern States east of the Mississippi. The Creeks, Choctaws, Chickasaws and Seminoles belong to this family.

The Siouan family lived principally west of the Mississippi on the Great Plains, but some of the tribes were found in Virginia and the Carolinas. The Sioux, Osages, Kansas, Catawbias, Quapaws, Otoes, Omahas, Crows, Blackfeet, Yanktons, Winnebagoes and Tetons belong to this family.

The Caddoan family lived in Texas, and was scattered north to the valley of the Platte river. The Pawnees, Caddos and Ariccarees belong to this family.

The Shoshonean family occupied the great interior basin of the United

* The spelling of these family names corresponds to that used by the Bureau of Ethnology. Observe that Siouan is the name of the family and that Sioux is the name of a tribe in this family.

States—Utah, Nevada, and parts of Colorado, Texas, and other states. The Shoshones, Bannocks, Utes and Comanches belong to this family.

There are many small linguistic families on the Pacific coast. The Athapascan family was along the Rio Grande river, and in New Mexico and Arizona west of that river.

PRESENT HOMES OF INDIANS.* Of the total number of Indians now in the United States considerably more than one-third live in the state of Oklahoma. Other states having a large Indian population are Arizona, South Dakota, California, New Mexico, Wisconsin, Montana, Minnesota, and Washington.

The present policy of the government is to educate the Indians by bringing them in contact with our institutions and mode of life, and finally to absorb them into our civilization. Already a large number have been made citizens† and are entitled to all the rights guaranteed under the Constitution to citizens.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Describe the mountain and river systems of North America. What wild game was found there? How many Indians were there in North America when America was discovered? Now? Which were partly civilized? Describe the personal appearance of the Indian. What kind of houses did the Indians build? Describe their mode of life, their weapons, tools, and mode of warfare. What was their religion? Tell of their government, of the clan, tribe, and family. What progress have the Indians made toward civilization? What is the present policy of the government toward them? Where are they now found?

* By the government report for the year 1909, the Indian population was as follows: Oklahoma, 117,370; Arizona, 37,209; South Dakota, 20,171; California, 19,778; New Mexico, 18,727; Wisconsin, 11,020; Montana 10,426; Minnesota, 10,008; Washington, 8,484; and small numbers in other states.

† Indians until recent years had always been excluded from citizenship; but in 1887 Congress passed a law which provides that any Indian may become a citizen either by taking up his land allotment from the government or by taking up his residence apart from any tribe of Indians and adopting the habits of civilized life. They are then entitled to all the rights, privileges and immunities of citizens.

CHAPTER IV.

THE PERIOD OF SETTLEMENT.

America No Place for the Indolent and Faint-Hearted.

The eyes of the Old World were now turned to America. Nations were eager to make settlements to enforce their claims to territory. Broad areas of fertile land needed thrifty, strong hands to hew down the forests and till the soil. What nations would succeed? What people would endure? Only those who could meet the conditions. America in 1600 was no place for idlers, cowards, or dreamers. Fields had to be cleared, houses erected, roads opened, crops cultivated, and all these protected. There was nothing to invite ease and comfort. Bears, wolves and panthers were a menace to man and a danger to his livestock, and the fierce Indian was a constant threat to his life. It is apparent that only those who were willing to work and face hardships and dangers could hope to succeed on the shores of America. Both classes, the idle and the industrious, came. The first suffered the pangs of hunger, disease, and death; the latter struggled through hardships and afflictions to become the permanent home-builders of the New World. The record of their achievements makes the seventeenth century one of great interest to the student of American history. During this time, twelve of the thirteen colonies were founded: Virginia, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, New Jersey, North Carolina, and South Carolina. The settlement of Georgia, the last of the thirteen colonies, came a little later.

Conditions in England. Conditions in England were at this time favorable for making settlements in new countries. English merchants planned to extend their trade. Many men who had been in the army were idle. Changed methods in agriculture, especially the increase in sheep-raising, which re-

quired fewer men than the cultivation of crops, had thrown



JAMES I., KING OF ENGLAND,
1603-1625.

many out of employment. Lack of work made hard times. Eager to extend his domain and spread the Christian religion, King James I. granted a charter, 1606, to the Virginia Company. This company was organized for trade and settlement in America, and was divided into two branches, one known as the London Company and the other the Plymouth Company.

SETTLEMENT OF VIRGINIA.

The London and Plymouth Companies. The London Company was composed of "knights, merchants, and noblemen" in and around London. To them the King gave the territory between the 34th and 41st parallels of north latitude. The Plymouth Company, composed of "knights, merchants, and noblemen" from the town of Plymouth, received the territory between the 38th and 45th parallels. Thus the grants overlapped three degrees in width (from the 38th to the 41st degree), which was left open to settlers sent out by either of the companies. This was done to encourage the companies to act promptly, as neither company could make a settlement within a hundred miles of any settlement already made by the other company. The first to act would gain control of most of the territory. Both grants extended inland from the sea 100 miles.

IMPORTANT PROVISIONS. 1. To the colonists and their children the King promised all the rights of residents of England. It will be well to bear this in mind, for the disregard of it was a great cause of the Revolutionary War.

2. The London colony was to be ruled by a council in Virginia, appointed by a council in England, which in turn was appointed by the King. The settlers were to have no part in their own government.

3. One-fifth of all gold and silver found was to go into the King's treasury.



In addition to these clauses in the charter, a long list of instructions was given to the colonists by the King and the London Company. Their religion should be that of the Church of England. For the first five years all products of labor should be placed in a common storehouse, from which each one could draw what he needed. This encouraged the lazy, but it discouraged the industrious to know that the fruits of their labor were to be consumed by idlers. In fact, this provision almost ruined the colony.

Settlement of Jamestown, 1607. The London Company was the first to act. On New Year's Day, 1607, under com-



VIRGINIA.

mand of Captain Newport, it sent 105 persons in three ships to plant a colony within its grant. The colonists sailed up Chesapeake Bay and entered a river which they called the James, in honor of the King. About thirty miles from the mouth of the river they landed in May, 1607, and began the first permanent English settlement in America. They built a rude fort, mounted some cannon to protect themselves against the Indians and Spaniards and named the place Jamestown, in honor of King James. For a church they stretched a canvas between trees, and beneath it, with logs for benches, they held their religious services.

Character of the Colonists. The colonists were not fitted for their tasks. Over half of them were "gentlemen" not accustomed to work. The rest were mechanics and tradesmen. All were men who came, not to make homes, but to find gold, gain wealth, and return to England. They planted no seed and reaped no crops. Their provisions ran short. They slept on the bare ground and drank unwholesome water. The low, marshy soil bred fever and other diseases. By fall one-half their number were dead, among them Bartholomew Gosnold. Those who were well were kept busy caring for the sick. Finally, after health was restored, they set to work building huts. Captain Newport returned to England. Then the colonists

who had raised no crops were confronted with the danger of starvation.

John Smith. After the colony had reached this deplorable state Captain John Smith took charge and managed its affairs. Before coming to America he had a variety of thrilling experiences in Europe, sometimes barely escaping death. He was wise, resourceful, energetic, and ruled with great vigor. He himself worked, and taught others to work. He made a rule that no one should eat who did not work. There was no place for drones. Soon he had the colonists erecting cabins, digging the soil, and chopping wood. Probably his greatest service was in cultivating the friendship of the Indians, and in gathering from them a supply of corn to tide the colonists over the winter. Had it not been for the wisdom and energy of Captain Smith, they probably would have perished. He explored the rivers, bays, and surrounding country. While on one of these trips he was captured by Indians and taken to their chief, Powhatan. Smith relates—though the story is discredited by many historians—that he was condemned to die. His hands and feet were tied, his head laid upon a stone, and a powerful Indian stood ready with uplifted club to strike the fatal blow, when Pocahontas,* the beautiful daughter of Powhatan, threw herself upon him and pleaded for his life. The sturdy old chief yielded, and the life of Smith was saved. Whether this be fact or fancy, it is true that Smith had many thrilling experiences and miraculous escapes, and that he was the savior of the Jamestown colony.



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

The Second Charter, 1609. In 1609 the King gave a sec-

* Pocahontas was some years later married to John Rolfe. The marriage helped to preserve the peace between the Indians and colonists. John Randolph, once a leader in the House of Representatives, was a descendant of Pocahontas and Rolfe.

ond charter to the London Company. The council in Virginia was displaced by the appointment of a governor. The extent of the grant was changed. Under the new charter the company received a tract of land extending from 200 miles north to 200 miles south of Old Point Comfort, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, "west and northwest." Virginia afterwards tried to interpret the phrase "west and northwest" to mean that the northern boundary of Virginia extended directly northwest from the coast instead of due west. In 1612 the council in England was abolished and the management placed in the hands of the stockholders.

Starving-Time, 1609-10. New settlers continued to come until the colony numbered 500. They were a shiftless, worthless set, and became a burden instead of a help. Lord Delaware, the newly appointed Governor, had not yet arrived; so Smith continued to rule until he was seriously wounded by an explosion of powder, which caused him to return to England for treatment. The colonists again became idle and disorderly, and the Indians became sullen, refusing to furnish any more food. The want of provisions made the winter a trying one. By spring the colony was reduced from 500 to 60. The winter was long known as the Starving-Time. Lord Delaware arrived in June with new settlers, and a supply of food, just as the survivors were about to sail for England. On account of ill-health Delaware returned to England and left Sir Thomas Dale in charge of the colony. Dale abolished the common storehouse and gave to each man a tract of land from which he could reap the product of his own labor. The idler could no longer rely and impose on the man of industry as by the common storehouse plan.

The First Representative Assembly, 1619. A better class of settlers began to come, men who came to till the soil and build homes. By 1619 there were 4,000 persons living in eleven settlements called "plantations," but immigration almost stopped under the cruel and selfish rule of Samuel Argall (1616-1619). Then a great change took place. Argall was removed and Yeardley, a new governor, was sent over with

limited powers. Each plantation was allowed to elect two delegates to a legislative assembly, called the House of Burgesses, which met for the first time in a church in Jamestown, July 30, 1619. This was the first legislative assembly ever held by white men in America, and it gave the people their first taste of that promise made in the charter, granting them the full rights of Englishmen. Two years later (1621) these rights were embodied in writing. The new government consisted of a governor, a council, and an assembly chosen by the people. This date marks the beginning of the real political life of the colony, which soon launched into a period of growth and prosperity.

Beginning of Family Life, 1619. The early colonists were all men. Faithful mothers and happy children were needed to establish families and to build homes. To secure this, the London Company in 1619 sent over a hundred good women as wives for the planters. They met a most cordial welcome, and each was soon married to a settler, who paid from 100 pounds to 150 pounds of tobacco for his wife. The result was most pleasing. More women came. Domestic ties were formed. The colonists became in reality Virginians. Three great institutions were now well planted: the family, the church, and the government. The school was still wanting.

Tobacco the Main Source of Wealth. The climate and soil of Virginia were especially well suited for the cultivation of tobacco. The "smoking habit" had spread over England, Spain and France, making a great demand for that article, which raised the price, making tobacco-raising very profitable. Many farmers left England to engage in the new industry in the new country.

Need of Labor.—"INDENTURED SERVANTS."—The cultivation of tobacco on a large scale made a demand for labor. Europe was ready to supply this demand. Thousands of laborers, too poor to pay for their passage to the New World, contracted with masters of ships to sell themselves as servants for a series of years in exchange for the passage-money, advanced by the ship-owners. Most of these were sold at the

wharf when the ships arrived. They were called "indentured servants," and among them were many poor boys and girls, who were bound to serve until they became of age. In case no buyers came to the ship, the passengers were turned over to agents, who chained them together and peddled them through the towns. Another class of "indentured servants" was made up of criminals, brought from England, and sold to the colonists for a term of years. The demand for labor became so great that the sale of these poor persons became a regular and profitable business, and when volunteers could not be secured kidnappers were employed by ship-owners to steal persons. "Children and adults alike were lured or forced upon vessels in the harbor," carried to America and sold as servants.

NEGRO SLAVERY.* But a different kind of service was begun in 1619, a year already noted for the introduction of women and representative government in Virginia. A Dutch vessel in August sold twenty African negroes to planters. This was the beginning of negro slavery in America. Its growth was at first slow, but when it was discovered that the negro's hands could supply a cheap and profitable labor for the plantations, negro slavery made a rapid growth in the South. Negroes were procured in Africa and sold as slaves in America. Dutch and New England traders found a profitable business in capturing negroes in Africa for the American market.

Indian Wars, 1622 and 1644. While Powhatan was chief, the Indians were peaceful and the settlers dwelt in security. After his death his brother became chief, and planned to destroy the Jamestown settlements. On March 22, 1622, while many Indians were visiting among the colonists, they, at a fixed time, suddenly began murdering their unsuspecting hosts. Men, women and children were slain in the outlying districts. Jamestown and surrounding territory, being forewarned the day before by a friendly Indian, were prepared for the attack. In the war which followed, the Indians were so severely punished that they made but little trouble for twenty-two years.

* John Hawkins, an Englishman, as early in 1560, had sold slaves to the Spanish in the West Indies.

In 1644 they again took the war-path, and killed 500 colonists. In the end they were defeated and driven from the settled regions.

A Royal Province. King James did not like the idea of giving the people a voice in their government. He applied to the courts, which were under his control, to have the charter to the Virginia Company annulled on the charge that the colony was mismanaged and that the company could not give proper protection against the Indians. The court ruled in the King's favor, and Virginia became a royal province, 1624. As a royal province the King appointed the governor and council, but the people still elected their assembly.

To the Virginia Company is due the credit of planting the first strong English colony in America, and with it the beginnings of self-government.

How Events in England Affected the Colonists. We are now studying about the English colonies, and should bear in mind that conditions in England had much to do with the character and the number of settlers who came to America. In those days the kings were tyrannical.* They believed that all right to rule was vested in them, and that the people should have no freedom in religion and no part in law-making; that kings had the divine right to rule over church and state.

Rule of Charles I. of England, (1625-1649.) At this time there was a bitter struggle between King Charles and Parliament. Charles, believing in the divine right of kings, wished to have absolute power to rule over the people as he pleased. He imposed taxes without their consent and severely punished those who did not worship according to the forms of the Church of England. Puritans and Catholics suffered from the effects of his cruel laws. From 1629 to 1640 Charles ruled without a parliament. During that time thousands of Puritans left their homes in England to come to America. But the quarrel between the King and his people went on,

* The rulers of England during the seventeenth century were: James I., (1603-1625); Charles I., (1625-1649); the Cromwells, (1649-1660); Charles II., (1660-1685); James II., (1685-1688); William III. and Mary, (1688-1702).

ending finally in a great civil war and the Puritan Revolution. The armies of the King were defeated, the House of Lords abolished, and the King executed, 1649.

Rule of Cromwell. After the death of Charles I., England was ruled by a council of state and the House of Commons.



OLIVER CROMWELL.

Oliver Cromwell at the head of the army was the controlling character. In 1652 he was made Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, and ruled until his death (1658). After the brief rule of his son Richard, government by Kings, Lords and Commons was restored, 1660. Charles Stuart, son of Charles I., then became King under the name of Charles II. He was succeeded by his brother, James II., who was so despotic that the people rose in arms and drove him out of England.

The Cavaliers Flocked to Virginia. During the Puritan rule of Cromwell, the population of Virginia increased rapidly. Many of those who favored Charles I. were forced to leave England. They included many aristocrats, called Cavaliers, and came to Virginia as the most sympathetic colony. They were educated and refined. Among them were the families of Randolph, Madison, Monroe, Marshall, Washington, and many others whose names became famous in American history.

The arrival of the Cavaliers had an important bearing on the later history of the colony. From them descended some of the great soldiers and statesmen of the Revolutionary period. They received a kindly welcome in Virginia, which was loyal to the King. The population increased from a few thousand in 1650 to 38,000 in 1670.

Period of Oppression. One of these aristocrats was Sir William Berkeley, twice governor of Virginia. His first term began in 1644 and ended when Cromwell came into power. Charles II. again sent him to rule over Virginia, in 1660. He

was arbitrary by nature and habit, had little faith in the common people, and believed they should not be educated. When speaking of Virginia, he once said (1671): "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years." Under his rule heavy taxes were laid, money squandered, oppressive church laws passed, and no election of the House of Burgesses was held for sixteen years.

Land Grants to Lords Culpeper and Arlington. To add to these troubles the King gave all Virginia to two of his favorites—Lord Culpeper and Lord Arlington—for a term of thirty-one years. As this grant made the land titles uncertain, the colonists became very indignant.

The Navigation Acts. While the English were having civil war the Dutch were busy building up a great commerce. When the war closed they controlled not only their own trade, but most of the commerce of England. With the hope of regaining this trade, Parliament in 1651 passed the first of a series of acts protecting English colonial trade by excluding other nations from sharing in these privileges. The act of 1651, though aimed directly at the Dutch, applied to all nations.

After this time many laws, all directed toward holding the colonial commerce in her own hands, were passed by England. Notable among these were the acts of 1660, 1672, and 1696. Under the last, the Board of Trade and Plantations, commonly called the Lords of Trade, with duties for supervising the trade and commerce of the colonies, was instituted. As a result of these and other acts the following restrictions were placed on colonial commerce:

1. Only English and colonial ships could carry on colonial trade.
2. The most important products of the colonies could be carried only to England.
3. Foreign goods could be brought to the colonies only from English ports, except under heavy duty.
4. Trade was restricted between the colonies. This gave

English merchants a monopoly, so the colonists received less for what they had to sell and were required to pay more for what they wished to buy. The loss to the colonists was balanced by the profits to the English. These acts bore heavily on the colonists, and became one of the causes of the Revolutionary War.

Indian Troubles and Bacon's Rebellion, 1676. To add to these troubles the Indians went on the war-path, murdering many of the outlying settlers. Governor Berkeley, who was doing a profitable fur trade with the Indians, refused to protect the settlers. They raised an army under the leadership of Nathaniel Bacon, a rich young man of gentle birth. In defiance of the governor, they marched against the Indians and punished them severely. This brought on a quarrel between the followers of Berkeley and Bacon. Berkeley and his army were defeated and driven on board a ship. Jamestown was burned by the followers of Bacon, and Williamsburg was made the seat of government. At this juncture Bacon died. His followers, lacking a leader, dispersed to their homes. Berkeley then took terrible revenge. He put twenty of Bacon's followers to death, threw some into prison, and seized the property of others. His severity led King Charles II. to say, "The old fool has taken more lives in that naked country than I did for the death of my father." He removed Berkeley from office; so the rebellion had two effects—Virginia was rid of a bad governor, and the Indians were forced to make peace.

Jamestown was rebuilt, but later burned by accident. Nothing now remains of it but the ruined tower of the old church.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What class of people did America invite? What were the conditions in England? What two companies received charters in 1606? What territory was given to each? How far inland? What important privileges did the King grant to the colonists? What church was established in the London Company Grant? Tell about Jamestown. What was the character of the settlers? What part did John Smith take in helping the colony? Who was Pocahontas? What changes were made by the charter of 1609? Tell about the starving-time. What right was granted to the

colonists in 1609? Tell of the House of Burgesses. How were women introduced into Jamestown? What was the main source of wealth of the colony? Why? What was an "indentured servant"? Tell about negro slavery. How did the civil war in England affect the growth of Virginia? Who were the Cavaliers? What effect did their coming have upon the life of the colony? What were the Navigation Acts? Why were they passed? What was the result of the passage of these Acts?

Tell something about each of the following named persons, places, and dates: John Smith, Powhatan, Pocahontas, Charles I., Oliver Cromwell, Nathaniel Bacon; Jamestown; 1606, 1607, 1619, 1622, 1624, 1651, 1676.

Write an outline for the chapter.

CHAPTER V.

PERIOD OF SETTLEMENT.

SETTLEMENT OF NEW ENGLAND.

MASSACHUSETTS.

The Council for New England.—Formed 1620. While the London Company was planting a colony at Jamestown, the Plymouth Company, which was formed at the same time, had failed to accomplish anything permanent. In 1620 the latter company, under the name of the Council for New England, received a new grant, which included all the vast territory between the 40th and 48th degrees of latitude, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific. (See map, p. 51.) This new company, in its efforts to found colonies, made many land grants, but before any settlements were made under its authority, a body of Pilgrims, wandering from their homes in Europe, made the first settlement within the territory.

Puritans, Separatists, and Pilgrims. During the reign of King Henry VIII. (1509–1547), a large portion of the people, following the example of their king, separated from the Church of Rome and formed the Church of England. As time passed many persons believed that the Church of England did not go far enough. They objected to so much form and ceremony, and wished, as they said, to purify the church and have a simpler form of worship. Hence they were named Puritans. Most of them had no thought of leaving the church to form a new sect. But in 1580 a minister named Robert Browne separated from the Established Church, and soon had quite a following of persons who claimed the right to worship as they pleased. They were called Separatists. At that time hardly a nation in the world permitted free religious worship. To allow such a thing, it was believed, would be a sure and quick way to bring the world to an evil end. So the monarchs, in succession—

Elizabeth, James, Charles—attempted to make all persons conform to the Church of England. The spirit of the times was well expressed by King James I. when he said: “I shall make them conform themselves or I will harrie them out of the land or do worse.” So he did. Separatists and Puritans were fined, imprisoned, and some hanged; others fled from this persecution to seek homes in distant lands.

The Pilgrims. In 1608 a band of Separatists fled with their pastor, John Robinson, from Scrooby, England, and settled at Leyden, Holland, where they could have freedom of worship. Here they were haunted by visions of other evils. They were treated well, but they saw that by association and marriage of their children with the Dutch, they would finally lose their nationality. Their descendants would cease to be Englishmen and become Dutchmen. Accordingly, they decided to leave Holland and seek a new home in the wilds of America. In the ship *Speedwell* they sailed to Southampton, England, where they were joined by friends in the *Mayflower*. Too poor to bear the expense of the voyage, they succeeded in interesting London merchants, who furnished aid on condition that they should share equally with the colonists one-half of what they had accumulated by the end of seven years. They were first called Pilgrims by Bradford, the historian of the Pilgrims, probably because of their wanderings.

From Plymouth to Plymouth Rock. The *Speedwell* having proved unseaworthy, on September 16, 1620, the Pilgrims set sail in the *Mayflower* with 102 persons on board. After a storm-tossed voyage of more than two months, they anchored in a harbor near Cape Cod. Here they gathered in the cabin of the ship and drew up an agreement or compact, pledging to live together in peace and harmony and agreeing to



THE MAYFLOWER.

obey laws of their own making, and at the same time acknowledging King James as sovereign. The noble document was solemnly signed by all the heads of the families, forty-one in number. John Carver was chosen Governor. They then examined the coast for a suitable place in which to settle, and landed, December 21, in a harbor which Captain Smith in 1614 had named Plymouth. Upon the shore lay a granite boulder, which has since borne the name of Plymouth Rock.

The Pilgrims had received permission from the London Company to settle in its territory, but their course was changed by storms; so they landed on territory owned by the Council for New England (see p. 62), from which they later received (1621) a grant of one hundred acres of land for each settler. Among the leaders of the colony were Brewster, the preacher; Bradford, the ruler; and Miles Standish, the soldier.

HARDSHIPS. Amid snow and ice they began to build cabins and a storehouse, using oiled paper as a substitute for window-



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DEPARTURE OF THE MAYFLOWER.

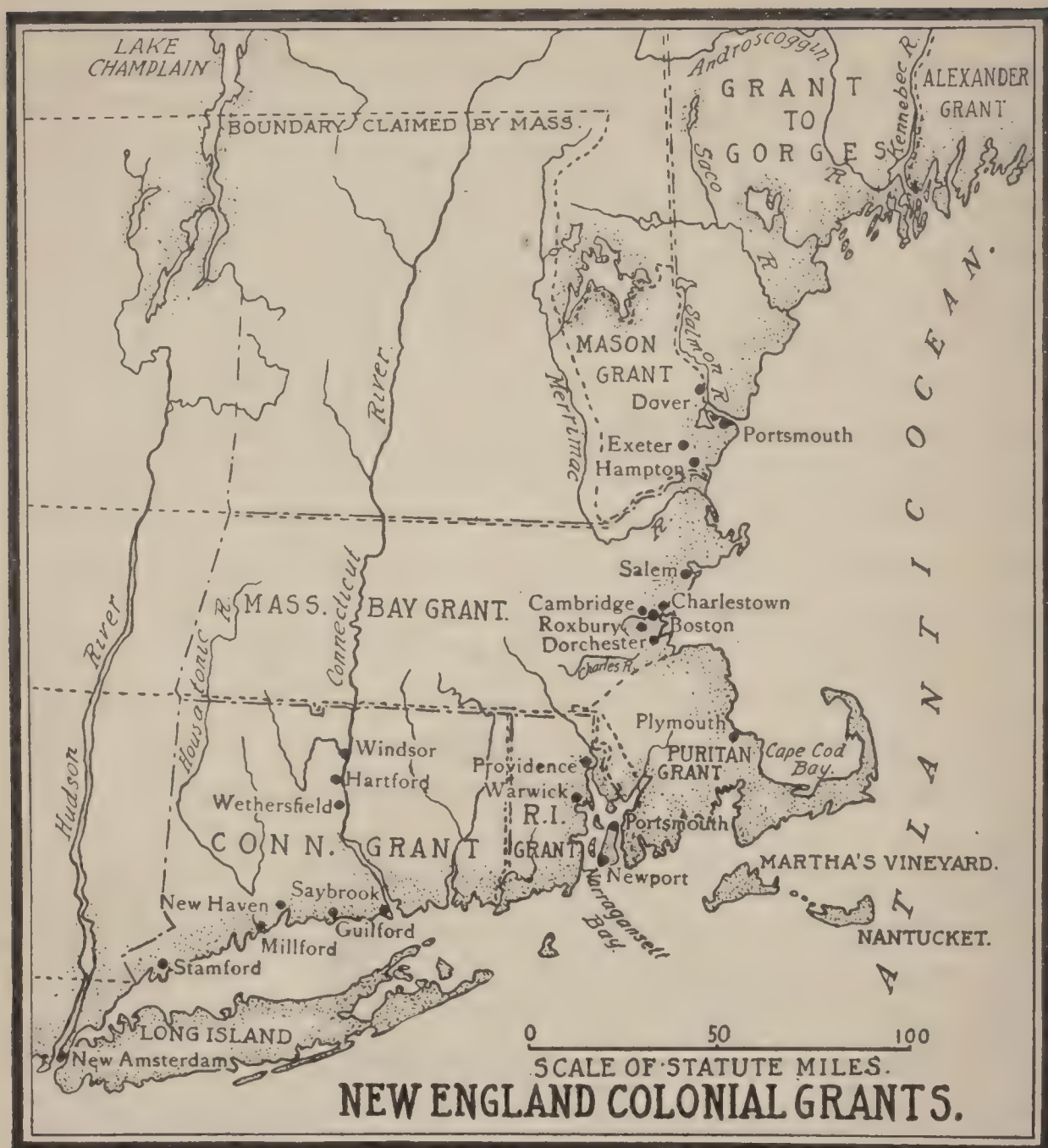
glass. Their food was poor and scant enough. They had come from the mild climate of England and Holland to one of almost arctic severity, for which they were poorly clothed and

housed. A number of them were compelled to stay on board the Mayflower. The test was almost beyond human endurance. Before spring had come one-half their number died from sickness and exposure, among them Governor Carver and his son. But the living did not despair. Their courage never faltered. Two of the strongest sentiments of the human heart—religious zeal and love of liberty—sustained them in the hours of gloom. When the Mayflower returned to England in the spring, not a Pilgrim went with her, but others soon joined them from Leyden. William Bradford succeeded Carver, and served as governor every year excepting five until his death (1657).

Relations with the Indians. In the spring of 1621 they made a treaty with Massasoit, chief of the Wampanoag Indians, which was faithfully kept for half a century. The Narragansett Indians were more warlike. The chief, Canonieus, sent the colonists a bundle of arrows tied with the skin of a rattlesnake. Governor Bradford accepted the war challenge by returning to the hostile chief the snake-skin stuffed with powder and shot. The Indians, having already learned something of the effects of the white man's guns, believed that these were means by which he controlled thunder and lightning. The natives remained peaceful for along time, due, probably, to just treatment by the colonists and to fear of their weapons.

Growth of the Colony and Character of the Colonists. The colony at first grew slowly, having at the end of ten years only 300 persons, but it later grew more rapidly. In 1626 the colonists bought out the claims of the London merchants who had advanced them money, and thus became free men. Their greatest wealth was not, however, in moneys and lands, but in ideas and spirit. They believed in equal rights to all, taught lessons of devotion to duty, and set a great example of self-rule in both civil and religious affairs. Governor Bradford then expressed what since has come true: "As one small candle may light a thousand, so the light here kindled hath shone to many, yea, in some sort to our whole nation."

Massachusetts Bay Colony. Encouraged by the success of the Pilgrims, many Puritans prepared to leave England to



SETTLEMENTS IN NEW ENGLAND.

seek homes in America. In 1628 a number of them purchased a grant of land from the Council for New England.

The grant extended from three miles north of the Merrimac river (from its mouth to its source)* to three miles south of the Charles river, extending "from sea to sea." The company the next year received a very liberal charter from the King, confirming the grant. The charter allowed the company, called the Massachusetts Bay Company, to elect a governor, deputy

* From this wording the people of Massachusetts claimed that the limit of their colony was marked by a line three miles distant from the Merrimac river, and extending from three miles north of its mouth to three miles north of its source, thence west to the Pacific Ocean. This claim, however, was not allowed by the King.

governor and eighteen assistants, allowing them entire freedom to make laws, providing the laws did not conflict with those of England. Their first settlement was made under John Endicott, at Salem, 1628. About that time Charles I. began to rule England without a Parliament, and great streams of persecuted Puritans came to America. The story of the early settlements is everywhere the same. It was not chiefly because America drew them on, but because Europe drove them out, that the colonists came to America.

In 1630 John Winthrop, a prominent English country gentleman, was chosen governor. He was deeply religious, and one of the strongest characters in the early history of the colony, and is sometimes called the founder of New England. With him came a number of Puritans of education, wealth and influence. They fled from the tyranny of the king, and came where they could establish a government and church according to their own plan. In ten years, 1630-40, thousands of Puritans came to New England. Towns sprang up rapidly. Among these were Boston, Charlestown, Roxbury, Dorchester, and Newtown (now Cambridge).



JOHN WINTHROP.

Government. Governor Winthrop and followers did not believe that all people were wise enough to take part in the affairs of the government. They believed in the rule of a select few. Winthrop said: "The best part [of the people] is always the least, and of the best part the wiser is always the lesser." In accord with this view the colony was at first ruled by the governor and his assistants called the General Court. Only church members were allowed to vote.

Others, led by Rev. Thomas Hooker, believed that all persons should have a voice in the government. Their views were well expressed by Hooker: "In matters which concern the common good, a general council, chosen by all to transact

business which concerns all, I conceive most suitable to rule." These different views were among the reasons which led Hooker to seek a new home and plant a new colony. The government, however, was improved when, in 1634, the towns were each allowed to send two representatives to the General Court. In 1644 these representatives became the lower house of the legislature, while the General Court became the upper house, which also acted as a judicial body.

In Virginia, only property-holders were allowed to vote. In Massachusetts, only church members were allowed this right. In the former, the government was controlled by the wealthy land-owners; in the latter, by the church members. In 1641 Massachusetts established a set of written laws, the Body of Liberties, to which all could appeal for justice.

The Township and Town Meeting. These early settlers usually came in congregations led by the ministers, and settled on a tract of land called a "township" or "parish." They soon erected a village church, which was used as a "meeting-house,"



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PILGRIMS GOING TO CHURCH.

not only for holding religious services, but also for transacting public business. A little later they constructed a separate building, called the "town hall," in which all secular meetings were

held. A necessary building in some towns was the block-house, built of heavy timbers, where people could take refuge in case of a sudden attack by Indians. All public business was transacted in the "town meetings," which were of great importance to all settlers. They developed individual responsibility. Each town was practically a little republic. Under such freedom the spirit of self-government took fast hold of the people, and bore fruit later in the American Revolution against the tyranny of George III.



A BLOCK-HOUSE.

Industries. Much of the time of the settlers was taken up by the building of houses, barns, fences, roads and bridges, and in cutting down timber to make ready for the plowman. Agriculture and stock-raising soon became leading industries. Wheat, corn and rye were the principal grains; and cattle, hogs, sheep and horses the chief stock. The farms were small compared with the great plantations in Virginia. Catching fish in the rivers, bays, and on the banks of Newfoundland, was an important industry. Boston became the center of shipping and ship-building. The colonists sent fish, furs and lumber to England in exchange for manufactured goods, and soon developed trade of importance with the West Indies.

King Philip's War. The worst of all Indian wars in New England broke out in 1675. The peaceful Massasoit was dead. His son Philip had become chief of the Wampanoags. With jealous eye he had seen the growth of the white settlements and witnessed the hunting-fields of the Indians dwindle away. He concluded that the white man must be destroyed or the Indian would be exterminated. Then, too, there were alleged personal wrongs that he wished to avenge. So he began war against the colonists, 1675. He was joined by several other tribes. The whites rallied their forces, and carried on a bitter conflict for nearly two years. It was costly to the colonists. Thirteen towns and 600 dwellings were laid in ashes, and more

than 2,000 persons lost their lives. In the end King Philip was killed, his tribe destroyed, and the Indian power forever broken in New England.

The Salem Witchcraft. In colonial days nearly all persons in Europe and in the colonies believed in witches. They thought that some persons were used by evil spirits to bring harm to others. Such persons were called witches. By laws of most nations they were put to death. In 1692 this terrible delusion took possession of the minds of the people of Salem. Some young girls who had been studying witchcraft imagined themselves to be under the control of witches. The alleged witches were seized by officers of the law. The craze spread rapidly. Nineteen were hanged on the absurd accusation of being witches, one was crushed to death, 150 were shut up in prison, and 200 more accused. So common had it become, that at any moment, anyone might expect to be accused of being a witch. The people came to their senses, finally, and saw their dreadful folly. The accused were liberated, and no more lives were sacrificed. The sad fate of the poor victims can be laid only to the ignorance and superstition of a people who, in the main, were endeavoring to do right as they saw the right with the light they had.

Massachusetts Loses her Charter. Massachusetts was a colony of Puritans. As such, it was loyal to the Puritan rule



CHARLES II., KING OF ENGLAND,
1660-1685.

of Oliver Cromwell. But when Charles II. became King, the people in Massachusetts did not fare so well. He charged them with violating the Navigation Acts. He was displeased because they gave shelter to four of the judges who sent his father, Charles I., to the scaffold, and because the colony coined money without royal authority, and opposed the Church of England. He did not like their independence in matters of govern-

ment, so he withdrew the charter of Massachusetts (1684) and made the colony a royal province. Sir Edmond Andros was sent over as governor of New England and New York. The next year James II. succeeded to the throne, and continued Andros as governor.

Rule of Andros. The rule of Andros, like that of his royal master, was harsh, but neither wise nor strong. Being empowered to bring the New England colonies under his rule, he abolished the General Court and the town meeting. He taxed the people without their consent, and declared many of the old land titles worthless. In short, he took all power to rule from the people and placed it in the hands of the royal governor and his council.

A revolution in England drove King James from his throne. William and Mary were invited to succeed him. When the news reached New England the colonists concluded to put an end to the tyranny of Andros. Soldiers and farmers flocked to Boston, ready to fight. Andros and his agents were seized and thrown into prison. In the mean time, William and Mary became rulers of England. Connecticut and Rhode Island were allowed to keep their old charters, but a new one was granted to Massachusetts, 1692, which placed Maine and Plymouth under Massachusetts. The governor, appointed by the king, had the right to veto any law made by the representatives of the people. Thus the unrestricted right of the people to rule themselves was gone but not forgotten. They often made trouble for the royal governors, until the final struggle for independence.

Different Views on Religion. Not many years after the founding of Massachusetts, the people began to differ on questions of religion and government. The Puritans had come to America in order that they might worship God in their own way, which they believed was the only right way. The freedom which they sought, they now denied to others. They began to persecute those who differed from them. Among these were Roger Williams, Anne Hutchinson, and members of the sect known as Quakers.

ROGER WILLIAMS was a minister in Salem, a graduate of Cambridge, and a man of great natural ability. Some of his



THE CHURCH AT SALEM IN WHICH
ROGER WILLIAMS PREACHED.

teachings were contrary to the views of most of the Puritans. Williams said if a man did not wish to go to church, or to pay a tax to support ministers or churches, he should not be forced to do so. Every man should have a right to worship God according to his own conscience. The state should not have control over the church. He also declared that the soil of America belonged to the Indians, and no king had any right to sell or

give away the land without paying them for it. These teachings are in accord with our system of government today, but at that time they were viewed with great alarm. The General Court decided by a small majority that Williams must be exiled to England. But when the attempt was made to arrest him he escaped into the wilderness (1636), and founded a new colony, Rhode Island.

ANNE HUTCHINSON. About the same time, the teachings of Anne Hutchinson added to the excitement. Her ideas brought her quite a following. Among them was the governor, Sir Henry Vane, and a few ministers, but most of the people considered her doctrine heresy. She was banished (1637), and like Williams went into the wilderness. With some of her followers she founded new settlements at Portsmouth and Newport, on the island of Rhode Island.

THE QUAKERS. The Quakers, or Friends as we know them today, are good, quiet and peaceable people. But in 1656, when two Quaker missionary women landed in Boston, they were arrested and locked up; and boards were nailed over the prison windows so no one could talk with them, so great was

the fear of their evil influence. Finally they were sent back to England, where all sorts of punishments were inflicted upon members of their sect. The Puritans believed that the teachings of the Quakers would destroy religion and government, so the severest laws were passed to punish them. They were imprisoned, fined, whipped, branded with red-hot irons, their ears were cut off, and in Massachusetts four were hanged. But still the Quakers increased in number, and taught the doctrine of the simple, peaceful life, following the "inner light" to guide them in life and save them in death. They finally overcame the bigotry of the times, and won a place as a great religious sect.

SETTLEMENT OF CONNECTICUT.

The Connecticut Valley. The beautiful Connecticut valley was an inviting place to home-seekers. Large quantities of fine fish were in the streams, and on their banks was an abundance of otter, beaver and other fur-bearing animals. The soil was fertile. So the valley offered fine opportunities for farming, fishing, and fur-trading,—three of the chief occupations on which the colonists then relied.

Settlement. The English were quick to see the natural advantages of the valley. Attracted by its beauty and richness, and urged by a desire for greater religious liberty, some of the colonists desired to make new settlements in this inviting region. John Winthrop, son of Governor Winthrop of Massachusetts, in 1635 built a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut river,* and named it Saybrook. The same year small settlements were made at Windsor and Wethersfield. The next year a large number of families, led by Rev. Thomas Hooker, left Newtown (now Cambridge, Mass.), journeyed on foot across the country, and settled at Hartford. They carried their household goods with them, and drove their cattle and hogs ahead through the roadless country, to build new homes in the wilderness. This was the first of the great westward move-

* The Dutch had established trading-posts along the river and built a fort, in 1633, near the place where Hartford now stands, but they did not attempt to make settlements.

ments, which did not stop until the descendants of the English colonists reached the shores of the Pacific.

The First Written Constitution, 1639. The people of Windsor, Hartford and Wethersfield, feeling the need of some organized government, met at Hartford (1639) and formed a union of the settlements. For the purpose of governing themselves, they drew up a written constitution called the *Fundamental Orders*. This was the *first written constitution* in America. Before this time, Connecticut was nominally under Massachusetts, but now it became the independent colony of Connecticut. The government was thoroughly democratic; the colony was in reality a small republic. Each town chose four persons for the legislature, called the "General Court." The Governor and six assistants, called magistrates, were elected by the people in the whole colony. All were allowed to vote.

New Haven Colony. Another settlement of importance was made by a company of rich London merchants under the leadership of John Davenport, an able minister. They arrived at Boston, 1637. The next year they founded a new colony, at New Haven, on Long Island Sound. A few years later, settlements were made at Milford, Guilford, and Stamford. These were afterwards united with New Haven into one colony called the New Haven Colony, which was wholly self-governing.

The Pequot War, 1637. The Pequots were the leading tribe in this region. They had seen the white man encroach gradually on their hunting-grounds, and began to retaliate, not in open warfare, but in treacherous murders. Warriors would lurk in the woods or lie in ambush, and when they found a man hunting, fishing, or at work, they would kill him. Often they would attack and kill isolated families, and sometimes carry women and children into slavery. Through the efforts of Roger Williams the Narragansetts were kept from joining the Pequots in an attempt to massacre the whites.

After a number of settlers were killed, the colonists sent a small army against the Pequot fort on the Mystic river. About 100 colonists and 270 friendly Indians made the attack,

before daylight. They surprised the Pequots and set fire to the fort. Those who escaped from the flames were shot down. Over 400 perished. The war spirit of the Indians was broken. No serious trouble occurred again in New England until King Philip's War, in 1675.

The United Colonies of New England, 1643. In 1643 Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut and New Haven (all the colonies except Rhode Island) formed a union called the United Colonies of New England. The object was to protect the colonies from the Dutch on the west, who claimed the Connecticut valley; from the French on the north, and from the Indians everywhere. A commission of eight, two from each colony, had charge of all dealings with Indians and foreign powers. The cause of any one colony thus became the cause of all. This union was a decisive step towards forming a single nation out of the thirteen colonies.

The Royal Charter and the Charter Oak. In 1662 King Charles II. gave a charter to Connecticut. New Haven was annexed to the Connecticut colony. The charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island were the most liberal ever granted by any king to any colony. No rights of legislation were reserved to the king. It is strange that such liberal governments should have been given to the colonists by a king who was so much of a tyrant in England.

The Connecticut grant included all lands between the Massachusetts Bay grant and Long Island Sound, from Narragansett Bay to the Pacific Ocean. The width of the continent was not then known. Areas and distances in America were underestimated, probably by a comparison with those in England.



CHARTER OAK.*

*The oak was blown down in 1856. A marble tablet in the city of Hartford marks the spot where it stood. Before the tree was blown down the cavity in which the charter was hidden had increased in size so that twenty-one men could stand in it. The circumference of the tree near the ground was then 33 feet.

When James II. came to the throne, he determined to take the charters from Connecticut and Rhode Island as his brother, Charles II., had done from Massachusetts. It was an evil day for the colonists when Edmund Andros was sent by the king as Governor of New England. In 1687 he went with a body of troops to Hartford to get the charter. He met the legislature, who debated the matter late into the night. The charter lay on the table. Great crowds of excited people listened to Governor Treat pleading for the charter, as he told of the sufferings, hardships and sacrifices of his people in their efforts to build homes in the wilderness. Andros would not yield. Suddenly the lights went out, and when they were relighted the charter was gone. Captain Wadsworth had seized and hidden it in the hollow of a great oak, which has since been known as the Charter Oak. Andros, however, declared the government by charter at an end. Some years later (1689), when Andros was thrown into prison by the colonists and his arbitrary rule was brought to an end, the precious document was brought from its hiding-place and again became the law of the colony.

RHODE ISLAND.

Settlement at Providence. Roger Williams, after his banishment from Massachusetts, spent the winter with the Indians. He bought a tract of land of them, and in June, 1636, with five companions began a settlement which he named Providence. Three years later he founded, in his colony, the first Baptist church. For the first time in the history of the country religion was separated from state affairs. No one was compelled to pay taxes for the church. Every man was allowed freedom in religious beliefs and forms of worship. The colony soon became a refuge for those persecuted for conscience sake. Today our constitutions, state and national, declare the same principles of religious toleration that Williams put into practice.

Patent for Providence Plantations. In 1643 Roger Williams secured a patent by which the settlements at Portsmouth and Newport were united with Providence. Together these were called the Providence Plantations. By this patent



ROGER WILLIAMS AMONG THE INDIANS.

colonists were allowed to hold the territory they occupied. They were permitted to make their own laws and thus become practically a republic.

The Charter of 1663.* The Colonists obtained a charter from Charles II. (1663) under the name of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, granting all the rights and privileges which they had thus far enjoyed. It expressly stated that no one should ever be made to suffer for his opinions in matters of religion. The charter was quite as liberal as that of Connecticut. It remained in force with few changes until 1842, when it was replaced by the adoption of a Constitution.

* Rhode Island was the smallest of all the colonies. It included the land lying south of Massachusetts between Narragansett Bay and Pawcatuck river.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Grant to Mason and Gorges. The Council for New England gave a grant of land, 1662, to John Mason* and Sir Ferdinando Gorges, lying between the Merrimac and Kennebec rivers, and extending sixty miles inland from the shore. In 1629 they divided the property, Mason taking the territory between the Merrimac and Piscataqua rivers, which he called New Hampshire; and Gorges, the land between the Piscataqua and the Kennebec, which he called Maine.

Settlement of New Hampshire. The first settlement of New Hampshire under the direction of Mason was made at Dover, 1623. Near the same time another settlement was made at Portsmouth, by fishermen. Some followers of Anne Hutchinson, driven from Massachusetts, settled at Exeter (1638). Others founded the town of Hampton. The growth of the colony was slow. In 1641 the colonists petitioned for a union with Massachusetts, as a protection against the Indians. The petition was granted. As a result, New Hampshire was a part of Massachusetts until 1692, when it was made a separate province, and remained such until the Revolution.

MAINE.

The first permanent settlement in Maine was made at Fort Pemaquid, 1626. Saco and Biddeford were settled in 1630, and Portland, 1632. Some time after the death of Gorges his heirs sold their province of Maine to Massachusetts, for £1,250. It remained part of Massachusetts until 1820, when it was admitted to the Union as a separate State.

* Mason received a new grant from the Council for New England (1635, but not confirmed by the King), which extended his territory to the Naumkee river. This overlapped the Massachusetts Grant.

Mason's Grant of 1639 extended inland from the coast 120 miles, between the Kennebec and Piscataqua rivers.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What was the Council for New England? Give the extent of its grant. Who were the Puritans? Separatists? Tell of the founding of Plymouth. Tell about the Compact. What Indians lived near Plymouth? Who was their chief? What was the character of the colonists? Tell of the government of the colony. What was the town meeting? What were the industries of the colonists? Tell of King Philip's war. What was the Salem Witchcraft? When did Massachusetts lose her charter? Who was the first royal governor? What colonies were united with Massachusetts?

What were the religious views of Roger Williams? Anne Hutchinson? The Quakers? Tell the story of the settlement of Connecticut,—how, when, where, and by whom. What were the Fundamental Orders? What Indian troubles did the people in Connecticut have? What colonies formed a union in 1643? For what purpose? Why important? When did Connecticut become a royal province? What was the Charter Oak?

Under what circumstances was Rhode Island founded? When and by whom? Tell something of the character and beliefs of the persons who founded the colony. How did they treat the Indians? What were the Providence Plantations? Give a brief history of the settlement of New Hampshire and Maine.

Tell something about the following named persons, places, and dates: John Robinson, Miles Standish, William Bradford, Massasoit, John Winthrop, Edmond Andros, Roger Williams, Anne Hutchinson, Thomas Hooker; Scrooby, Plymouth, Salem, Boston, Hartford, Saybrook, New Haven, Providence, Dover, Fort Pemaquid; 1620, 1623, 1628, 1636, 1638, 1643, 1662, 1675.

CHAPTER VI.

PERIOD OF SETTLEMENT.

SETTLEMENT OF THE MIDDLE COLONIES.

NEW YORK.

The Dutch Fur Traders. Henry Hudson, after his return to Europe from America, gave a brilliant account of the beauty of the new country, the great forests and the abundance of fine furs which could be secured from the natives for mere trifles. At once Dutch merchants sent out ships to engage in trade. In 1614 Dutch traders built four rude huts on Manhattan Island. The next year they built a fort up the Hudson near the site of Albany. All the early activities of the Dutch were in the interest of fur-trading, which was a quicker-road to riches than farming. The good-will of the Indians was necessary, so the Dutch cultivated and won their friendship, and soon found profit in exchanging blankets and trinkets for valuable furs.

The Dutch West India Company. In 1621 a company called the Dutch West India Company was formed to carry on trade more effectively and to exclude others who might wish to engage in the same business. The Dutch government gave them exclusive right "to traffic and plant colonies" in America "from the Strait of Magellan to the remotest north." The first colony was sent over by the company in 1623. Some of the colonists settled at Manhattan Island, now a part of the City of New York; some went up the Delaware river and built Fort Nassau, just below Philadelphia; while others went up the Hudson, and rebuilt the fort on the present site of Albany, which they named Fort Orange. In 1626 Peter Minuit was sent over as governor with new settlers. He landed at Manhattan Island and named the town New Amsterdam, and pur-

chased the entire island of about 14,000 acres for twenty-four dollars' worth of cloth and trinkets, at the rate of about one-sixth of a cent an acre.

The Patroons. The company took a novel plan to increase immigration and introduce farming. They offered a tract of land eight miles long on each side of a river, or sixteen miles along one side, extending inland as far as the soil could be occupied to advantage, to members of the West India Company who would make a settlement of fifty persons within four years after the date of their grant. The owners of these grants were called patroons. They were to bear the expense of bringing the immigrants, of stocking the farms, and of furnishing a minister and a schoolmaster. Except for the regulations of the company in trade and war, the patroon was absolute ruler of his land, practically monarch of a little kingdom. He was owner, ruler, and judge. His will was supreme. Without his permission, settlers could not vote, hold office, manufacture goods, hunt or fish. The patroon had first right to buy the produce of the soil. The most noted of the patroon settlements was that of Van Rensselaer, who acquired a tract of land larger than the state of Rhode Island. The system proved harmful to the colony. It created a few wealthy land-owners at the expense of the masses. Out of it grew the Anti-Rent difficulties of 1839-1845. Fortunately, not a large number of these grants were given. An important change was made in 1638, giving to all comers the rights of trade and settlement. This marks the beginning of the real growth of the colony. A tide of immigration swept in from the other colonies and also from the nations of Europe, making a great mixture of people and languages.

Indian Policy. The Dutch soon after their arrival made a treaty with the Iroquois Indians, which was faithfully kept by both sides. The Dutch accorded their dusky neighbors fair treatment. They always paid them for their lands and dealt honestly when trading for furs. Though friends of the Dutch and later of the English, the Indians remained enemies to the French. (See p. 34.) But in New Jersey and along the lower

Hudson there were bloody wars with the Algonquian tribes of Indians, who were finally subdued.

Government. The colony was ruled by a governor and a small council of advisers. The people had no part in their government. They were not allowed the town meeting as in New England or the assembly as in Virginia. They could send complaints to Holland and petition to have the governor removed.

All sects were allowed religious freedom, except for a time during Stuyvesant's rule. He tried without success to have all persons conform to the Dutch Reformed Church.

The people of New Netherland were not happy under the arbitrary rule of the Dutch governors. They longed for the rights and freedom which other colonists enjoyed. Their efforts to secure these rights led to a bitter struggle between the people and the governors. In 1647 the people secured the right to choose a number of their most trusted men, from whom the governor was required to select nine to advise with him. The next year New Amsterdam was allowed its own government. As the governor appointed the officers for New Amsterdam and consulted his advisers at his own will, but little good resulted to the people.

New Netherland became New York, 1664. The English claimed the territory occupied by the Dutch, by right of Cabot's discoveries. This territory was included in the grant given by James I. to the Plymouth Company, but the English made no settlements to enforce their claims, while the Dutch followed up Hudson's discovery by actual settlement.

Reasons Why the Dutch were not Disturbed. For many years the English were on friendly terms with the Dutch. They had been allies against Spain. (See p. 37.) Their friendship was strengthened by ties of kinship and religion. Then, too, while the Dutch were colonizing New Netherland the English were engaged in civil strife at home. The English kings had no time to look after their interests in America, so the Dutch were not molested.

Capture by the English. Finally, the growing importance of Dutch commerce aroused the jealousy of England. The Navigation Act of 1651 was aimed directly at the Dutch trade. In 1664 Charles II. gave all of New Netherland to his brother, the Duke of York and Albany.* An English fleet bearing an army was sent to take possession of the colony. Governor Stuyvesant wanted to fight, but his army was small, and the colonists, hoping to have more liberty under English rule, refused to aid him. So the helpless governor was forced to surrender. In 1664 New Netherland became New York; Fort Orange was changed to Albany; and the city of New Amsterdam became the city of New York.

DELAWARE.

Settlement. The first attempt to settle what is now the state of Delaware was made by Dutch patroons. A deed was secured and a settlement of thirty persons made on Lewes creek, near Cape Henlopen (1631), but the entire settlement was destroyed by the Indians. Only the ruins of the old fort remain to tell their sad fate.

Peter Minuit having been removed from office as governor of New Netherland, afterward offered his services to the Swedish crown to plant a colony in America. In 1638 a permanent settlement was made near Wilmington by a colony of Swedes led by Minuit. They named the colony New Sweden and the settlement Christiana, in honor of the young queen of Sweden. The settlers secured a grant from the government of Sweden, which up to this time had made no discoveries or explorations, and hence had no right to grant territory already claimed by the English and the Dutch. The Dutch West India Company protested, and built Fort Nassau on the east bank of the Delaware river. The Swedes made other settlements and their colony prospered until Peter Stuyvesant, governor of New Netherland, sent an armed force, 1655, which compelled the Swedes to surrender. New Sweden became part of New

* The grant to the Duke of York included all land from the Connecticut river to the Delaware river.

Netherland (New York, after 1664), and remained so until 1681, when the Duke of York sold it to William Penn, a personal friend.

UNDER PENNSYLVANIA. Penn called the country "The Territories" or the "Three lower counties on the Delaware." Up to the Revolution, Delaware was a part of Pennsylvania, under the same governor, but with a separate assembly or legislature after 1703. In 1776 "The Territories" declared themselves free and independent, and took the name of Delaware.

MARYLAND.

Settlement of Maryland, 1634. Maryland was founded by George Calvert, first Lord Baltimore, as a refuge for the Roman Catholics, who at this time were being persecuted in England. No Catholic was then admitted to a seat in Parliament or allowed to employ a Catholic teacher, or to educate his children in a foreign land. He was heavily fined if he did not attend the services of the church authorized by the government, and in other ways suffered on account of his religion.



CECIL CALVERT.

The noble-minded Lord Baltimore, himself a Catholic, now came to their rescue. From King Charles I. he secured the promise of a grant to a portion of Virginia, to which he purposed to lead the oppressed people of his faith. Before his plans were completed, he died. His eldest son, Cecil Calvert, received the grant from the King and carried on the projected work. In 1633 Cecil Calvert sent to the territory thus granted a colony of about 300 persons under his brother Leonard as governor. The colonists purchased

the claims of the Indians to the land, and made a settlement (1634) near the mouth of the Potomac, which they named St. Marys.



GRANTS TO THE DUKE OF YORK, WILLIAM PENN, AND LORD BALTIMORE.

Grant to the Duke of York extended from the Connecticut to the Delaware river.

Penn's Grant extended from the Delaware river westward five degrees, between the beginning of the 40th and the beginning of the 43rd degrees.

Baltimore's grant lay between the 40th degree and the Potomac river.

Extent of the Grant. Baltimore's grant included all land lying between the "fortieth degree" of north latitude and the Potomac river from its source to its mouth, extending east to the ocean and up the Delaware Bay to the 40th degree. It was named Maryland, in honor of the queen, Henrietta Maria. The whole territory was carved out of Virginia, which was at that time a royal province.

Government. The charter was a remarkable document. By it the King gave up all his rights in the colony, except to require the proprietor to bring him each year two Indian arrows as a token of loyalty to the crown, and one-fifth of all gold and silver which might be found. The proprietor received almost absolute power to govern the colony. He could make laws with the assent of the people, rent or sell lands, appoint all officers, coin money, declare war and make peace, levy tolls

and duties. In short, he was monarch of his province. All laws had to conform "to reason," and not be contrary to the laws of England.

Though Baltimore had the rights of a king, he ruled with the spirit of a man among men. From the beginning the people were given a voice in their own government, at first only the right to approve laws, but later the right to make them.

Religious Freedom. Freedom of worship was allowed to all Christians from the beginning. No other colony and no other country in the world at this time enjoyed such liberty, though in Massachusetts Roger Williams, Anne Hutchinson and others were pleading for it, and secured it a few years later in the colony of Rhode Island. This basic principle in religion was enacted into law by the Maryland legislature in 1649. This was the famous Toleration Act, which provided that no one professing faith in Jesus Christ should be molested on account of his religious beliefs.

Objects and Character of Colonists. These colonists were not dreamers, idlers, or gold-seekers. They came to America to build homes and to escape persecution. The first settlers included both Catholics and Protestants. They won the friendship of the Indians and set to work to cultivate the fields, and soon had tobacco, corn and wheat, not alone for their own use, but also for export. They thus escaped two great dangers, Indian massacre and starvation, which destroyed or threatened to destroy a number of other settlements. The colony at once launched into a career of peace, growth, and prosperity.

Troubles for the Proprietors. Maryland was, however, not without her troubles. They came from two sources: one was the quarrels between the Protestants and Catholics; the other was caused by Virginians who were displeased because Maryland was formed out of Virginia.

CLAIBORNE'S REBELLION. William Claiborne had built a thriving settlement and trading-post on Kent Island in the Chesapeake Bay before Lord Baltimore received his grant. Claiborne refused to recognize the authority of Baltimore, and tried to hold the island by force of arms, but he was finally

expelled. Some years later he returned and stirred up a civil war by leading the Protestants against the Catholics. After several attempts, he succeeded in capturing St. Mary's and in driving Calvert out of the colony; but Calvert was restored to his authority by the greatest of all Puritans, Oliver Cromwell, then ruler of England, who knew how to be just as well as harsh. For his loss in Maryland Claiborne received a grant of land in Virginia. In 1691 the king deprived Baltimore of his colony and made it a royal province. The Protestants then gained control, established the Church of England and passed laws persecuting the Catholics and to some extent the Puritans.

The Calverts were again restored to authority (1715), when the fourth Lord Baltimore, who had become a Protestant, was made governor and proprietor of the colony. He and his descendants ruled until the Revolution.

NEW JERSEY.

New Jersey Part of New York. All of the present state of New Jersey was part of New Netherland until 1664. While the Dutch were in control they established a trading-post at Bergen (1617), on the west bank of the Hudson; and in 1623 a block-house as a fort on the Jersey side of the Delaware, a few miles below Philadelphia; but no progress was made toward settlement until the territory became an English province (1664).

New Jersey Under English Rule. Soon after the Duke of York received his province he sold the land between the Delaware and the ocean to two friends, Lord John Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. The province was named New Jersey in honor of Carteret, who was governor of the Island of Jersey in the English Channel, and who had won fame in defending the island for the King against Cromwell's forces.

The first permanent settlement was made at Elizabethtown, 1665, by Philip Carteret, nephew of the proprietor, who was sent over as governor. As the people were allowed freedom of worship and a voice in the government, many settlers came to

the colony, especially from New England. Newark was founded, 1666, and Salem in 1675. The colonists purchased the land from the Indians and won their good-will.

East and West Jersey. In 1674 Berkeley sold his interest to Quakers, and two years later the province was divided into



EAST JERSEY AND WEST JERSEY.

East and West Jersey. Carteret took East Jersey and the successors of Berkeleys, among them William Penn, took West Jersey. In 1682 William Penn and twenty-three others purchased East Jersey of the heirs of Carteret. Thus the whole province came into the hands of Quakers, though many Scotch Presbyterians settled among them.

Troubles with the Proprietors.

The Duke of York soon began to regret the fact that he had given away New Jersey. He tried to recover it, but William Penn argued the case in England with such skill that the Duke was forced to yield the ownership of the soil to the people.

There was much trouble between the colonists and the proprietors on account of rent collections and land titles, due to the frequent change of proprietors. After quarreling with the settlers for several years, the proprietors gave up their rights to the colony (1702). New Jersey became a royal province, having the same governor as New York until 1738, but a different assembly. After 1738 it had a separate governor appointed by the king, and remained a royal province until the Revolution.

PENNSYLVANIA.

The Quakers. The Quakers took an important part in the settlement of three colonies—Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware. Their ideals and modes of life were important factors in the history of these colonies. Their influence and

thoughts, like those of Puritan and Cavalier, helped to mould our national character.

The creed of the Quakers was simplicity of life and worship. They wore plain dress, used simple speech, opposed taxes for war purposes, and would not take an oath on the witness-stand or go to war. They believed that ministers were unnecessary and that truth was revealed to each person by an "inner light" or the voice of God in his soul. They refused to stand with uncovered head before the most august body: to God alone was due such homage. All men, they said, were equal in the sight of God and should be in the sight of man; so they refused to recognize rank, title, or honor, and addressed all men by the term of "friend" or "thee" and "thou."

William Penn. George Fox was the founder and William Penn the greatest apostle of the Quakers. Both were ridiculed, abused, and imprisoned, but their courage and devotion never failed. Their faith was nourished by the persecution of themselves and their followers. Penn, when young, was thrown into prison for writing a book without a license to do so. He was threatened with prison for life if he did not change his religion. His prompt reply was, "My prison shall be my grave before I will budge a jot." His father, seeing it was useless to try to change his views, paid his fine to have him released.



WILLIAM PENN.

Penn's connection with New Jersey suggested to him the idea of planting a colony in America which should be a refuge for the persecuted of all religions in all lands. His father, who was a distinguished English admiral and in high favor with the King, died in 1670, leaving his son William a great inheritance. A part of the estate was a claim of £16,000 against King Charles II., but he was short of funds and Penn in need of money. At Penn's suggestion the King in 1681 gave him a great tract of

land in America almost as large as England itself. Charles named the province in honor of Penn's father, Pennsylvania, meaning Penn's woodland.

Settlement. Penn at once began preparation on a large scale to settle his province, advertising it thoroughly in Europe and New England. The first colonists came over in 1681, under his cousin, William Markham, as governor. The next year Penn sailed with a hundred colonists and laid out the city of Philadelphia, the name meaning "loving one's brother." The first house was built in 1683, and within two years more than 2,000 persons had established homes there.

The Charter and the Great Body of Laws. The charter to Penn was quite similar to that given to Lord Baltimore, though not quite so liberal. Penn was the personal owner of the land, some 46,000 square miles. To him the people paid the rents and of him they purchased lands. He was required to give to the king each year "two beaver-skins," and one-fifth of the gold and silver found. The colonists were not to be taxed without their consent and the laws were not to conflict with the laws of England.

To the Swedish and Dutch settlers already on his land Penn announced, "You shall be governed by laws of your own making and live a free, and, if you will, a sober and industrious life."

Upon his arrival in America he stopped at Upland, Pennsylvania (now Chester), and called together an assembly of law-makers. The assembly agreed to what is called "The Great Law," a system of government drawn up in England by Penn's own hand. 1. The government was declared to be for the benefit of the people. 2. Freedom of conscience was granted without regard to sect or color. 3. Every child past twelve was required to "be brought up" to some trade or useful occupation. 4. Only two crimes, treason and murder, were punished by death. 5. A trial by jury was granted to all, even to Indians. 6. Every prison was to be made a workshop and place for reform as well as a place for punishment. 7. There should be no cock-fights, stage-plays, lotteries, drunk-

eness, swearing or dueling in the colony. 8. Taxes were to be levied only by the assembly.

EXTENT. Penn's grant extended from the Delaware river westward five degrees between "the beginning of the 40th degree" and "the beginning of the 43rd degree." (See map, pp. 85.) Penn argued that a degree is the distance between two parallels. The beginning of the 40th degree is the 39th parallel. The beginning of the 43rd degree is the 42nd parallel. So he claimed all land between the 39th and the 42nd parallels. This overlapped Lord Baltimore's grant by one degree, for his claim extended north to the 40th parallel. By Baltimore's claim, Philadelphia, Penn's favorite city, was included in Maryland. The result was a long and bitter quarrel between the two proprietors and their heirs. The dispute was finally settled (1763-1767) by a compromise.

The Mason and Dixon Line. Two eminent astronomers, Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, were appointed by the heirs of the proprietors to make a survey. They cut a vista 24 feet wide among the trees, in the middle of which they set stones a mile apart. Every fifth one was marked on one side with the coat of arms of the Penns, and the other with the arms of Baltimore. After four years of labor they fixed the present boundary between Maryland and Pennsylvania, the historic Mason and Dixon Line, which later, by imaginary extension, became famous as a dividing line between the free and slave states.

Indian Policy. Penn's fair treatment of the Indians won their friendship. Soon after his arrival he met the chiefs of the various tribes beneath a stately elm near Philadelphia, and made a treaty. The Indians were to be paid for their lands. Both English and Indians were to live in peace and friendship. In addressing them Penn said: "He and his children never fire a rifle, never trust to the sword; they meet the red man on the broad path of good faith and good will. They mean no harm and have no fear." The Indians agreed that they would live in peace with the white men while the sun shines and the rivers run to the sea. No oaths or seals were used, but only promises made, which were faithfully kept by both sides until the French and Indian War.



PENN'S TREATY WITH THE INDIANS.

Growth. Penn went to England in 1684, and when he returned fifteen years later he found great changes. The population had increased to 20,000 persons, of whom 10,000 lived in the thriving city of Philadelphia. In it were tanneries, flour-mills, potteries, saw-mills, and many lines of business. Its merchants carried on a profitable trade with England and the West Indies. In 1701 Penn bade a final farewell to the colony and sailed for England. The greatness of the man was reflected in the laws of the colony and was the means of bringing peace and happiness to the people.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Who first explored the Hudson valley? What was the extent of the Dutch claim? What settlements did they make? What was the Dutch West India Company? Tell of the Dutch fur traders? Who were the Patroons? Was such a system beneficial or harmful to the colony? Why? What was the relation of the Dutch with the Indians? What other nation also claimed New Netherland? Why were the Dutch for a long time not disturbed by the English? What was the extent of the grant

to the Duke of York? When did New Netherland become New York? Why was the capture of New Netherland so easily made by the English?

Who first attempted to settle Delaware? Who made the first permanent settlement? What was the country named? Tell how it became part of New Netherland and later part of Penn's province.

New Jersey was at first a part of what other colony? When did it become English territory?

Where, by whom, and under what circumstances was Maryland founded? What was the extent of Baltimore's grant? Where was the first settlement made? Date? Tell of the government of the colony. What was the famous Toleration Act? What class of people came to Maryland? What trouble arose between Baltimore and some Virginians? What was the final outcome of these troubles?

Who were the Quakers? What was their creed? How did Penn obtain a grant? What city was founded in 1683? Tell of Penn's system of government. What was the Body of Laws? What was the extent of Penn's grant? What boundary was in dispute? What was the "Mason and Dixon Line"? What was Penn's Indian policy? Tell of the growth of Philadelphia. What influence did Penn have in the colony? What did the "Mason and Dixon Line" at a later date become noted for?

Tell something of the following named persons, places, and dates: The Duke of York, Peter Stuyvesant, Cecil Carteret or the second Lord Baltimore, Claiborne, John Berkeley, George Carteret, William Penn, George Fox; Manhattan Island, St. Mary's, Christiana, Elizabethtown; 1614, 1623, 1634, 1638, 1664, 1665, 1682.

Make a map showing the extent of the grants to the Duke of York, William Penn, and Lord Baltimore.

Tell the chief facts of this chapter or write an outline of it.

CHAPTER VII.

THE PERIOD OF SETTLEMENT.

THE SOUTHERN COLONIES.

THE CAROLINAS.

The Carolina Grant. In 1663 Charles II. gave a grant of land to a company composed of Lord Clarendon and seven associates, which he named the province of Carolina. It embraced all the land from the Atlantic to the Pacific, between the 31st and 36th parallels. Two years later it was enlarged to include the land south to the 29th parallel and northward



GRANTS TO SOUTHERN COLONIES.

to 36° 30'. The original extent of Virginia was thus reduced by the various grants from its original size to its present extent along the coast.

The charter gave almost unlimited power to the Company. "Every favor," it has been said, "was extended to the proprietors; nothing was neglected but the interest of the English sovereign and the rights of the colonists."

Settlement. Before Carolina was formed, traders and farmers from Virginia had settled along the coast of Albemarle Sound. Ten years later (1663) these settlements were by direction of the proprietor formed into a colony. This was the beginning of North Carolina. In 1670 the Carolina proprietor sent over two ship-loads of emigrants from England, who settled on the west bank of the Ashley river near the sea, and named the settlement Charles Town.* Ten years later they crossed the peninsula and laid the foundations of the present city of Charleston. This was the beginning of South Carolina.

Locke's Grand Model. John Locke, a noted English philosopher, drew up for the colony what they considered the most perfect form of government that had yet been framed. The colony was divided into districts, and the people were to be divided into several classes. The governing or ruling body was to be selected from the upper class, while the lowest division or common people were to be held as serfs, with no rights of their own. Neither they nor their children could ever rise above serfdom. The proprietors failed to fasten the "Grand Model," as their scheme was called, upon the colonists, for the people were determined to make their own laws and to control their own labor.

Separation of North and South Carolina. The colonists were too widely separated and the territory was too large to be governed as one colony. As a result, two assemblies were chosen (1712), one for the settlements in the north and one for those in the south. There were usually two governors. But there was constant trouble between the governors and the colonists. The resistance to the "Grand Model" schooled the

* Named in honor of King Charles. Charles Town was afterwards changed to Charleston.

people to disobey the laws, so unjust and unsuited to the colony. Tired of troubles, the proprietors sold their rights to the Crown (1729). Two separate royal provinces, North Carolina and South Carolina, were then formed, and remained such to the Revolution.

Social and Economic Life. The people of the two colonies presented quite a contrast in life and industry. Large plantations were the rule in South Carolina. Many of the wealthy land-owners, called planters, lived in their palatial mansions with their coat of arms on the windows, in the city of Charleston, which became a social center. At their command were servants, fine carriages and spirited horses. Their plantations were cared for by slaves, who in 1750 outnumbered the whites. Rice, tobacco, and at a later date, indigo, were the chief agricultural products of the colony.

In North Carolina the farms were small, and slaves were few. There were no great cities. Life was mostly rural. Among the settlers were Scotch-Irish, German, Swiss, French, and English. The chief products were indigo, tar, lumber, turpentine, tobacco, and rice.*

GEORGIA.

James Oglethorpe and English Prisons. Of the thirteen original colonies, Georgia was the last formed. It was the spirit of philanthropy, or love of humanity, that led to the settlement of the last of the colonies. England at that time imprisoned men for trivial debts. Hundreds of poor persons were then confined in jails for this reason. Many of them were good, honest, and industrious, but through misfortune, sickness, or lack of work, they had contracted debts for which they were sent to jail.



JAMES OGLETHORPE.

In prison they were treated with great cruelty. In many cases extra fines were assessed against

* Rice was first brought from Madagascar, 1693.

them by corrupt jailers. In a short time their spirit and health were broken. On account of filth, neglect, and want of food, their condition was pitiable. Their misery touched the heart of James Oglethorpe, an English soldier, a member of Parliament, and a brave, able, benevolent and sympathetic man, and he resolved to help the prisoners. He secured some relief from Parliament, and then formed a plan to pay the debts of the most deserving and send them to America where they could begin life anew.

Oglethorpe was a cavalier and royalist, and did not believe in the equality of men, but he did believe *that it was the duty of the strong and fortunate to assist and protect the weak and the unfortunate.*

Settlement at Savannah, 1733. His grant included all territory between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers from their mouth to their sources, and thence west to the Pacific. Thus Georgia became an English outpost against the Spaniards in their attempts to possess this territory under the name of Florida. Through the influence of Oglethorpe the equivalent of \$175,000 was raised to carry on the work of settlement.* Free passage, free tools and free lands were offered to the prospective settlers, and thirty-five families of these, accompanied by Oglethorpe, made the first settlement at Savannah, 1733. Two years later, when Oglethorpe returned to the colony, two great men, John Wesley and his brother Charles, the founders of Methodism, came with him.

Restrictions and Growth. The trustees, wishing to make a model colony, forbade the introduction of intoxicating liquors and slaves. Women were denied the right to hold land. Roman Catholics were excluded from the colony, and for twenty-one years the colonists were to have no voice in their own government. These restrictions, which kept settlers away, were finally abolished by the trustees, and then the colony grew rapidly. Many Germans and Scotch-Highlanders arrived. The industries were similar to those of South Carolina. The cultivation of silk was attempted, but it proved unprofitable.

* The House of Commons gave £16,000 and private subscriptions amounted to £6,000.

In 1752 the trustees surrendered their charter to the King and Georgia became a royal province.

War with the Spaniards. When war broke out in 1739 between Spain and England, Oglethorpe marched against the Spaniards in Florida and laid siege to St. Augustine, but was forced to abandon it. A few years later the Spaniards in turn sent a large fleet, carrying 3,000 men, from the West Indies and St. Augustine, against Georgia; but Oglethorpe, in command of only 800 men, by skillful strategy succeeded in driving the Spaniards away.

The Thirteen Colonies. In a little more than a century (from 1606 to 1733) the English had planted thirteen colonies along the Atlantic coast, extending from the present state of Maine to Florida. Within their borders were hosts of honest, active, industrious, brave, and God-fearing people, who were soon to push across the mountains to people the valley beyond.

Naming the colonies in the order in which they appear on the coast, we have: (1) New Hampshire, (2) Massachusetts (including Maine), (3) Rhode Island, (4) Connecticut, (5) New York, (6) New Jersey, (7) Pennsylvania, (8) Delaware, (9) Maryland, (10) Virginia, (11) North Carolina, (12) South Carolina, (13) Georgia.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

To whom was Carolina granted? Tell how two colonies sprang up where one was intended. Who came to Albemarle? When? When was Charleston founded? What was the "Grand Model"? When did the Carolinas become royal provinces? What crops grew on the plantations of South Carolina? On the farms of North Carolina? Tell of Charleston as a social center.

Who was Oglethorpe? What grant of land was given him by the king? What were Oglethorpe's aims? What city was founded? When? Why were liquor and slaves forbidden? Why did Oglethorpe surrender his charter? When did Georgia become a royal colony? Why did the Spaniards trouble the colonists?

Tell something of the following named persons, places, and dates: Lord Clarendon, James Oglethorpe; Albemarle, Charleston, Savannah; 1650, 1670, 1729, 1732.

TABLE OF COLONIES.

<i>Name</i>	<i>By Whom Founded</i>	<i>People</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Place</i>
Virginia.....	London Company.....	English....	1607	Jamestown.
Massachusetts:				
(a) Plymouth..	Separatists.....	English....	1620	Plymouth.
(b) Mass. Bay..	Puritans.....	English....	1628	Salem.
(c) Maine.....	Gorges and Mason.....	English....	1626	Pemaquid.
Connecticut.....	Winthrop*.....	English....	1635	Saybrook.
(a) Hartford...	Emigrants from Mass...	English....	1636	Hartford.
(b) New Haven	Davenport.....	English....	1638	New Haven.
Maryland.....	Lord Baltimore.....	English....	1634	St. Mary's.
Rhode Island....	Roger Williams.....	English....	1636	Providence.
North Carolina...	Eight Nobles.....	English....	1663	Albemarle.
South Carolina...	Eight Nobles.....	English....	1670	Charleston.
New York.....	Dutch.....	Dutch.....	1623	Manhattan Island.
New Hampshire..	Georges and Mason.....	English....	1623	Dover.
New Jersey.....	Berkeley and Carteret...	English....	1665	Elizabethtown.
Pennsylvania....	William Penn.....	English....	1682	Philadelphia.
Delaware.....	Swedes.....	Swedes....	1638	Christiana.
Georgia.....	Oglethorpe.....	English....	1773	Savannah.

* For Lords Say and Brooke.

CHAPTER VIII.

GROWTH OF THE FRENCH POWER.

French Objects and Scope of Territory. While the English were at work building colonies along the Atlantic, almost within sound of the surf, from Maine to Georgia, the French penetrated the remote solitudes of the interior along the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi. Their explorations and settlements covered a vast area. Their chief objects were: first, to acquire a large amount of new territory, which would add to the glory of France; second, to carry on a profitable fur trade; third, to convert the Indians to Christianity. The French did not build as well or as wisely as the English. The making of permanent homes was not one of the chief objects as with the English, and this was the greatest weakness of French colonization. Neither farming nor manufacturing was carried on to any extent. These industries were necessary to a healthy growth in wealth and population. In the absence of them, the French settlements grew slowly, while the English grew rapidly. The two nations began to plant colonies about the same time, but at the end of a century there were at least fifteen persons in the English colonies for every one in the French territory. Quebec, their principal city, at the end of a hundred years was a mere village.

Obstacles to Growth. Neither the climate nor the country along the St. Lawrence encouraged rapid growth. The winters were cold and long. The soil and seasons were not as well suited to general agriculture as along the coast. Then, too, it was more difficult to plant colonies far in the interior, along the St. Lawrence, about the Great Lakes, and down the Mississippi. But hardy fur-traders, brave and patient priests, bold adventurers and soldiers took up the task of carrying the

flag of France and the cross of the Church into those distant regions.

The Jesuit Missionaries. Jesuit missionaries and fur-traders opened the way to French settlements. Boldly they went into primeval forests, facing danger, privation, and untold hardships. Freely they gave their strength, their labor, and some of them their lives to spread the Catholic faith and extend the domain of France. No suffering or difficulty was great enough to stop their advance or check their zeal. Among these early French pioneers we may name only a few: Jean Nicolet, Allouez, Marquette, Joliet, Hennepin, and LaSalle.

Relation with the Indians. Excepting the Iroquois of New York, the relation of the French with the Indians was quite friendly. Traders and missionaries shared the camp-fires and wigwams of the Indians, paddled in their birch canoes up rivers and over lakes, scoured the woods with them for game and furs; and hunters and traders sometimes led the dusky maidens to the marriage altar. The French did not destroy the hunting-grounds to make way for the farmer as the English did, and so did not stir up the envy of the Indian. The Iroquois, however, were the source of much trouble to the French. Their enmity, incurred by Champlain, kept the French from settling in New York, and for a time prevented explorations along Lakes Ontario and Erie. In order to avoid conflict with this dreaded tribe the French moved westward by way of the Ottawa river to carry on fur trade and exploration.

Marquette and Joliet. Marquette and Joliet were the first of the French explorers to go beyond the region around the Great Lakes into the Mississippi valley. They were sent by Frontenac, Governor of Canada, in search of a great river, which the Indians called the "Father of Waters." Joliet set out from Fort Frontenac and went by way of the Ottawa river to Mackinac, where he met Marquette (1672). Together with five companions in two canoes, they paddled up Green Bay, and ascended the Fox river to its source. Directed by Indian guides, they carried their canoes over the marshy portage to a branch of the Wisconsin river, following its course until they

floated on the shining bosom of the broad Mississippi (June, 1673). Onward they went until they had passed the Missouri, the Ohio, crossed the trail which DeSoto had made more than a century before, and finally landed at a point near the mouth of the Arkansas river. After resting a while with some Indians, they returned to Canada by way of the Mississippi and Illinois rivers and the Great Lakes.

LaSalle.* Among the French explorers, none was so great as Robert de LaSalle. In 1679, with his companions he set



ROBERT DE LASALLE.

out from Frontenac (now Kingston) on a voyage of exploration. Above Niagara Falls they built the first ship that ever floated beyond the falls. In it they sailed through Lakes Erie, Huron, Michigan, and the St. Joseph river, then crossed the divide to the Kankakee and passed down the Kankakee and Illinois rivers to near the present site of Peoria. Here they built a fort called Crevecoeur (Crāv-ker, meaning heart-break). Leaving Tonty, his friend and companion, in charge of

the fort, LaSalle returned to Canada for supplies. Father Hennepin, one of his party, while exploring along the Mississippi with two companions, was carried north by Sioux Indians. He explored the Mississippi as far as the Falls of St. Anthony, and, after some startling adventures, returned to Canada (1682).

When LaSalle returned (1681) to the Illinois he found his fort in ruins. His cherished purpose was to seek an outlet to the sea. He would not fail while strength lasted. Again returning to Canada, he fitted out another expedition, which passed up the Great Lakes, the Chicago river, and down the Illinois and Mississippi into the Gulf of Mexico (April 9, 1682). At the mouth of the river he raised a great wooden cross, on which was fastened a metal plate bearing the arms of France.

* Robert Cavalier, known as LaSalle.

He took possession of the entire country drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries, for the King of France, Louis XIV., in whose honor he named it Louisiana. On the way back to



FRENCH SETTLEMENTS.

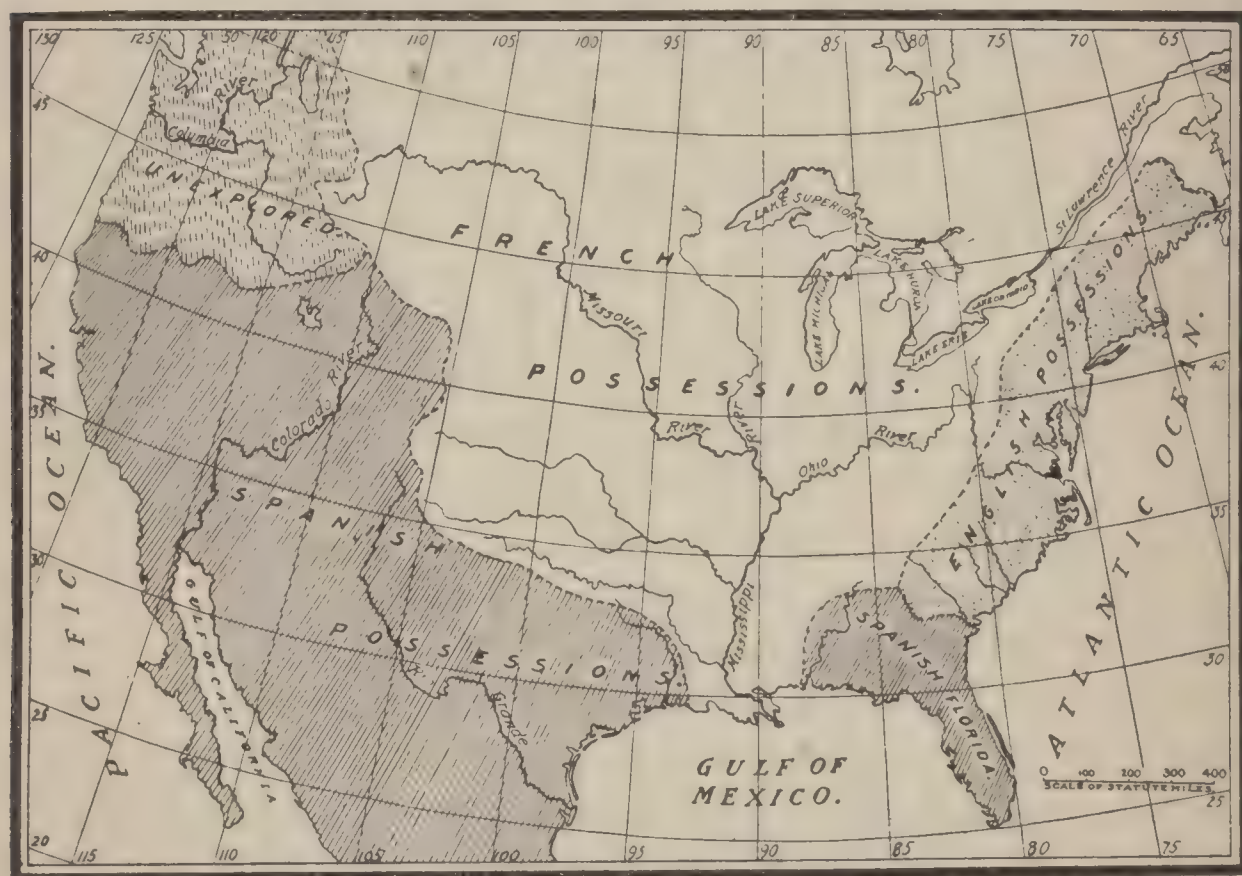
Canada he built Fort St. Louis, at a place called Starved Rock, on the Illinois river, near the present site of Ottawa.

The great explorer met a tragic death a few years later. Having sailed from France with the hope of planting a colony on the lower Mississippi river, he missed its mouth and landed in Texas, near Matagorda Bay, and made a settlement, which

ended in disaster. While attempting to reach Canada, LaSalle was treacherously shot by some of his own followers.

French Claims.* At the close of the seventeenth century the French laid claim to:

1. Acadia, which included Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and part of Maine.
2. Canada, or the territory drained by the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes.
3. Louisiana, which then included all the land drained by the Mississippi river and its tributaries.



TERRITORIAL POSSESSIONS FROM 1755-1763.

But the English also claimed much of this territory. The charters of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Virginia, Carolina, and Georgia gave them lands extending from "sea to sea." It was evident that a bitter struggle would take place before

* By the end of the seventeenth century the French forts and settlements were as follows: Quebec, 1608; Montreal, 1642; Ft. Richelieu, 1642; Ft. Frontenac, 1673; St. Ignace, 1670; Sault St. Marie, 1641; Ft. Mackinac, 1641; Ft. La Honton, 1680; La Pointe Mission, 1666; Ft. St. Joseph, 1679; Ft. St. Louis, 1682; Ft. Crevecœur, 1680; Cahokia, 1700; Ft. Kaskaskia, 1695; Ft. Prudhomme, 1682; Ft. St. Louis, 1684, on Matagorda Bay (Texas).

the two nations could settle these conflicting claims. The trouble began in 1689 and ended in 1763. During this time the colonists went to war four times. These are called the Inter-Colonial Wars, or the struggle between the French and the English for the soil of North America. They are called :

1. King William's War, 1689-1697.
2. Queen Anne's War, 1702-1713.
3. King George's War, 1744-1748.
4. The French and Indian War, 1754-1763.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What were the chief objects of the French in making settlements? What was their greatest weakness in planting colonies? Who were the Jesuits, and what did they do in America? Name four of them. How did the French treat the Indians? Who explored the Mississippi valley? What was LaSalle's great work? What was the extent of Louisiana? What territories did the French claim? What four wars followed?

Tell something of the following named persons, places, and date: Marquette, Joliet, LaSalle; Quebec, Montreal, Ft. Frontenac; 1682.

CHAPTER IX.

THE STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY IN AMERICA.

King William's War, 1689-1697.—**CAUSE.** The first of the series of conflicts between the French and English broke out in 1689, when James II. of England was driven from his throne,



A THRILLING ADVENTURE WITH THE INDIANS.

The history of colonial life abounds with thrilling Indian adventures, bloody massacres, and narrow escapes. One of these is the story of the Dustin family. In March, 1697, when Haverhill was attacked by the Indians, Mr. Dustin succeeded in making a safe retreat with seven of his children, but his wife, who was unable to escape with them, after seeing her infant killed and her house set on fire, was taken into captivity. Marching many days through the forest, sleeping on the wet ground, they finally reached an island in Merrimac, the home of the leader of the tribe. Here she planned revenge and escape: One night, while her captors were asleep, aided by an English lad who had been captive for a year, she killed ten of the Indians, took their scalps, got in a canoe, and with her child companion reached Haverhill in safety. The General Court awarded each of them \$250 for their deed.

and his nephew, William of Orange, succeeded him. The King of France sided with James, and tried to restore him to the throne. War followed between France and England, and soon extended to the colonies in America.

EVENTS. Frontenac, Governor of Canada, planned a series of attacks on the settlements in New York and New England. His troops were composed of French and many Indians, who were hostile to the English. Their methods of warfare were of the Indian type—to fall upon the unsuspecting inhabitants by stealth, and in the midnight hour burn their towns and murder the inhabitants, though they sometimes carried women and children into captivity or slavery. Dover, Salmon Falls, and Exeter (New Hampshire), Schenectady (New York), and Haverhill (Massachusetts), were laid in ashes, and most of the people killed. All along the border there were midnight attacks, massacres, and frightful scenes of torture.

For these outrages the English colonies retaliated by an invasion of Canada. The French at this time had three strongholds in America: Port Royal in Acadia, and Quebec and Montreal in Canada. Sir William Phipps, of Massachusetts, in command of a large fleet, captured Port Royal. An attempt to capture Quebec and Montreal ended in failure. England and France signed a treaty of peace (1697), at Ryswick, Holland. This also brought peace in America. Both nations were to hold the same territory they had before the war began.

Queen Anne's War, 1702–1713. Louis XIV. of France placed his grandson on the throne of Spain, contrary to an agreement with England, and favored a son of James II. for King of England instead of Queen Anne. This again brought on a war between England and France, which soon was taken up by the colonies in America. In Europe the war was called the War of the Spanish Succession; in America it was called Queen Anne's War. The English colonists had to contend not only with the French on the north, but also with the Spaniards on the south. The French and Indians repeated the same frightful acts of massacre as in the previous war. Wells, Saco, Deerfield and Haverhill were raided. (The Iroquois were under

a pledge of neutrality to the French, but their presence in New York shielded the settlers along the border.) The English retaliated. After three attempts they captured Port Royal, Acadia, but an expedition against Montreal failed.

In the south the English attacked St. Augustine and the Spaniards attempted to capture Charleston. Neither succeeded. The war was closed by the treaty of Utrecht (1713). Acadia, Newfoundland and the Hudson Bay territory were ceded to England.

Development of French Possessions. After the treaty of Utrecht the colonies were blessed with a period of thirty years of peace. During this time the French busied themselves in fortifying their positions along the St. Lawrence and in settling the Mississippi valley. About \$5,000,000 was spent in fortifying Louisburg, Cape Breton Island, which stood guard over the entrance to the St. Lawrence river. Fort Detroit was built (1701), Fort Niagara (1726), Fort Vincennes (1735), and in 1731 the French entered the colony of New York and built Crown Point.

The first settlement in the lower Mississippi region was made by Iberville (1699), at Biloxi. In 1702 French headquarters in the south were moved from Biloxi to Mobile. The Spaniards made a settlement (1699) at Pensacola, not far from Mobile, but, as at this time the French and Spanish were the common foe of the English, there was no armed conflict between the two. They agreed that the Perdido river should be the boundary between Mobile and Pensacola.

John Law. A gigantic scheme for settlement was formed by John Law, an energetic Scotchman. He organized a company and secured from the French crown the right to establish a colony in the Louisiana territory. In 1718 his company founded New Orleans, which four years later became the capital of Louisiana. Great plans were made to plant agricultural colonies and gather riches from imaginary mines. Some permanent good resulted in the way of settlement, but the company failed. Before 1750 the French flag waved over more than sixty forts between Quebec and New Orleans. But the great

weakness of the French settlements lay in the fact that a small population was scattered over a vast extent of territory.

King George's War, 1744-1748. The question of who should rule over Austria started another war in Europe. England and France took different sides. The colonists again took up arms. The border settlements again suffered from the deadly raids of French and Indians. The English fitted out a fleet of fourteen armed ships and one hundred transports, carrying 4,000 New England troops, to capture Louisburg. After a siege of six weeks the fortress, thought to be impregnable, surrendered to the English, June 17, 1745. But at the close of the war Louisburg was again restored to the French, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748.

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, 1754-1763.

Causes. The principal cause of the French and Indian War was the conflicting claims to territory by the French and English. The English claimed all the territory from "sea to sea," which overlapped the French claim to the Mississippi valley. So long as the French were confined to the region along the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, and the English to the region east of the mountains, their immediate interests did not conflict. But when the English began to cross the mountains to occupy the fertile valleys beyond, and the French moved to occupy the same regions, trouble began. The two nations actually came face to face on lands which, before, they had only claimed. The colonists had already been embittered by the previous wars in America. This hatred was intensified by the rivalry between England and France in Europe. Neither side would retreat. Each prepared to hold its ground by force of arms, and to carry on a life-and-death struggle for the possession of North America. The English had a decided advantage. At this time the English colonies had a population of over 1,000,000, while the French settlements contained only about 80,000.

The Ohio Company and French Activity. In 1748 a number of prominent Virginians and a wealthy London mer-

chant formed a company called the Ohio Company, whose purpose was to engage in fur trade and settle new lands. They secured a grant of 500,000 acres lying along the Ohio between the Monongahela and the Kanawha rivers. Christopher Gist, an experienced guide, was sent to explore the region. The French at the same time took active measures to strengthen their claims. For this purpose the governor of Canada sent Celoron de Bienville (1749) with a band of men down the Allegheny and the Ohio as far as the Miami river. At the mouths of several streams, they nailed on trees tin plates bearing the arms of France, and buried lead plates in the ground. On the plates were inscriptions, claiming the country drained by the Ohio and all its tributaries. The French followed this by building a line of forts along the same route, at Presque Isle (now Erie), Fort Le Bœuf, and Fort Venango.

George Washington Enters Public Service. The English became thoroughly alarmed at the progress of the French. Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, who was interested in the Ohio Company, sent a messenger (1753) to inform the French commandant at Fort Le Bœuf that they were trespassing on English property, and that they must withdraw from the territory. This messenger was George Washington, a young man of twenty-one, a practical surveyor and adjutant-general of the Virginia militia. With him was Christopher Gist as guide. The perilous journey of 300 miles was made with dispatch. The message was delivered. The French commandant received Washington kindly, but his answer to Governor Dinwiddie plainly meant that, if the English got the land, they would have to come and take it.

Fort Duquesne and Fort Necessity. Without delay Dinwiddie sent a party of men under Captain Trent to build a log fort where the Allegheny and the Monongahela unite to form the Ohio. Washington was to follow with an army of 300 men to hold the new fort. Before the work was completed a large party of French and Indians came from Le Bœuf, captured the English, destroyed the fort (April, 1754), and built a better one, which they named Fort Duquesne (Dü-kān'), after

the Governor of Canada. Washington defeated a party of the French on the way to Fort Duquesne; but when the French advanced in force, he fell back to Great Meadows, where he hastily threw up breastworks which he called Fort Necessity. Here he was defeated by a large force of French and Indians and compelled to surrender, July 4, 1754, with permission to return with his troops to Virginia.

These were the first scenes of the French and Indian War, or the beginning of the struggle that was to decide which nation should rule in America. Both sides hurriedly prepared for war, both received aid from the mother country, and each sought to win aid from the Iroquois Indians.

The Albany Plan of Union, 1754. Thus far there had been no united action by the colonies. Virginia alone had acted against the French. But the time had come when the colonies must act together for the common good, or all would suffer. For many years they had felt the importance of some form of union.

Twenty-five delegates from seven colonies (New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and New England) met at Albany, New York, to consider a plan of union for defense. Benjamin Franklin, of Pennsylvania, drew up a plan, the substance of which was adopted by the delegates. It was rejected, however, by the King because it gave too much power to the colonies, and rejected by the colonists because it gave too little power to



FRENCH FORTS AND BRADDOCK'S DEFEAT.

them. The delegates succeeded in renewing an alliance with the Iroquois Indians.

Though the outward forms of union had failed, the discussion of the subject helped to cement a union in spirit and sentiment.

Plan of the War. General Braddock came to America to take command of the English forces. At a conference of the governors of the colonies held at Alexandria, Virginia, plans were formed to push the war along four different routes:

1. Braddock was to capture Fort Duquesne. 2. Sir William Johnson was to take Crown Point. 3. An expedition was to subdue Louisburg and Acadia and open the St. Lawrence. 4. An army was to go up the Mohawk valley and capture Niagara, "the gateway to the West."

Braddock's Defeat. Braddock set out from Alexandria with a force of 1,200 British and some Virginia troops. Washington was on his staff. The army followed the Potomac to Fort Cumberland, and marched thence toward Fort Duquesne over winding routes, through narrow defiles, by slender columns. Axemen often went ahead to open the way. Braddock, while cautious, was arrogant, conceited, and self-willed. He would not heed the advice of others. He believed his varied experience in Europe fitted him to perform any military task. But he knew nothing of Indians and Indian methods of fighting. When within a few miles of Fort Duquesne (July 9, 1755), Braddock suddenly met the enemy. From behind bush, rock and tree came the deadly fire of the French and Indian allies. Braddock formed his men into columns, where they were easily shot down by the enemy. The English fought bravely, but their fire was directed at a hidden foe. Their ranks thinned. Braddock fell, mortally wounded, after five horses had been shot under him. Most of the officers were killed or wounded. Washington seemed to bear a charmed life. Two horses were shot under him and four bullets pierced his clothes, but he escaped unhurt. With his Virginia troops, fighting Indian fashion, he covered the retreat of the shattered army, which finally went to Philadelphia. The Indians reaped a rich harvest of scalps and booty of rifles, laced red-coats, military boots, and cockades of

British officers who were killed. The entire western border was now open to the fierce raids of the heartless savages.

The Acadians. Acadia had continued a British province ever since it was taken from the French during Queen Anne's War. But its people were largely French in origin, speech, and thought. At the outbreak of the French and Indian war their sympathies were with the French cause. Some of the men had secretly joined the French army. The English feared the Acadians might cause trouble, so they sent a fleet from Boston to the Bay of Fundy to take possession of the country. Several thousand of the French inhabitants were driven on board the ships at the point of the bayonet. Their property was confiscated and they were scattered, distressed and helpless, among the English colonies from Maine to Georgia. Many of the exiles suffered great hardships, and some never again found relatives and former friends.

Other Expeditions. The expedition against Fort Niagara, led by Governor Shirley, ended in failure. He went from Albany to Oswego. Here news of Braddock's defeat, contrary winds, and tempests, caused Shirley to abandon the proposed voyage to Fort Niagara, but he left a garrison at Oswego. The expedition against Crown Point was partially successful. Crown Point was not taken, but the French were defeated at Fort Edward.

War Declared. These events had taken place in America before war was declared in Europe between England and France. In 1756 England formally declared war. Montcalm, one of the ablest of French generals, was sent to America. He captured Oswego, won over more Indian allies, built Fort Ticonderoga, and captured Fort William Henry (1757). For two years the French steadily gained at the expense of the English losses. But in the fall of 1757 William Pitt, one of England's great statesmen, and a warm friend of the colonies, took charge of affairs. His wisdom and energy imparted new life to the war, and soon the tide turned from defeat to victory.

Capture of Forts Duquesne and Niagara. In 1758 General Forbes led a large force against Fort Duquesne. Colonel

George Washington led the advance with a body of Virginia troops. As they approached, the French abandoned the fort and set fire to it. The English took possession, and the name Fort Duquesne was changed to Fort Pitt, in honor of England's great minister, William Pitt. The same year Louisburg and Fort Frontenac were captured by the English, but an attack on Ticonderoga was repulsed with heavy loss to the English. The next year, however, Ticonderoga and Crown Point were both abandoned when General Amherst approached with a large army: Fort Niagara also surrendered after a siege of three weeks. Total defeat stared the French in the face. The surrender of Duquesne and Niagara shut them off from the Ohio, and the surrender of Louisburg cut them off from the sea. The next movement of the English was to penetrate Canada and capture Quebec.

Capture of Quebec. Quebec was the metropolis of the French possessions. Strongly fortified and thought to be impregnable, the city stood on a high hill, surrounded by steep slopes or rocky cliffs, which end abruptly at the St. Lawrence river on one side and the St. Charles on the other side. To General Wolfe was assigned the task of taking the city. Unknown to the French, he led his men up the rocky cliffs in the dead of night, and at sunrise deployed his army on the Plains of Abraham, ready to give battle. The French, under the gallant Montcalm, came forth to meet them. Here was fought, September 13, 1759, the decisive battle of the war. The French were defeated, Quebec fell, and with it the last hope of the French to possess America. Both Wolfe and Montcalm were mortally wounded. As Wolfe was carried from the field, hearing the shouts of victory, he said, "God be praised! I shall die in peace." When Montcalm was told that he had but a short time to live, he said, "So much the better; I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

The destruction of the French power in America was completed by the capture of Montreal in 1760, but in Europe the war continued until 1763.

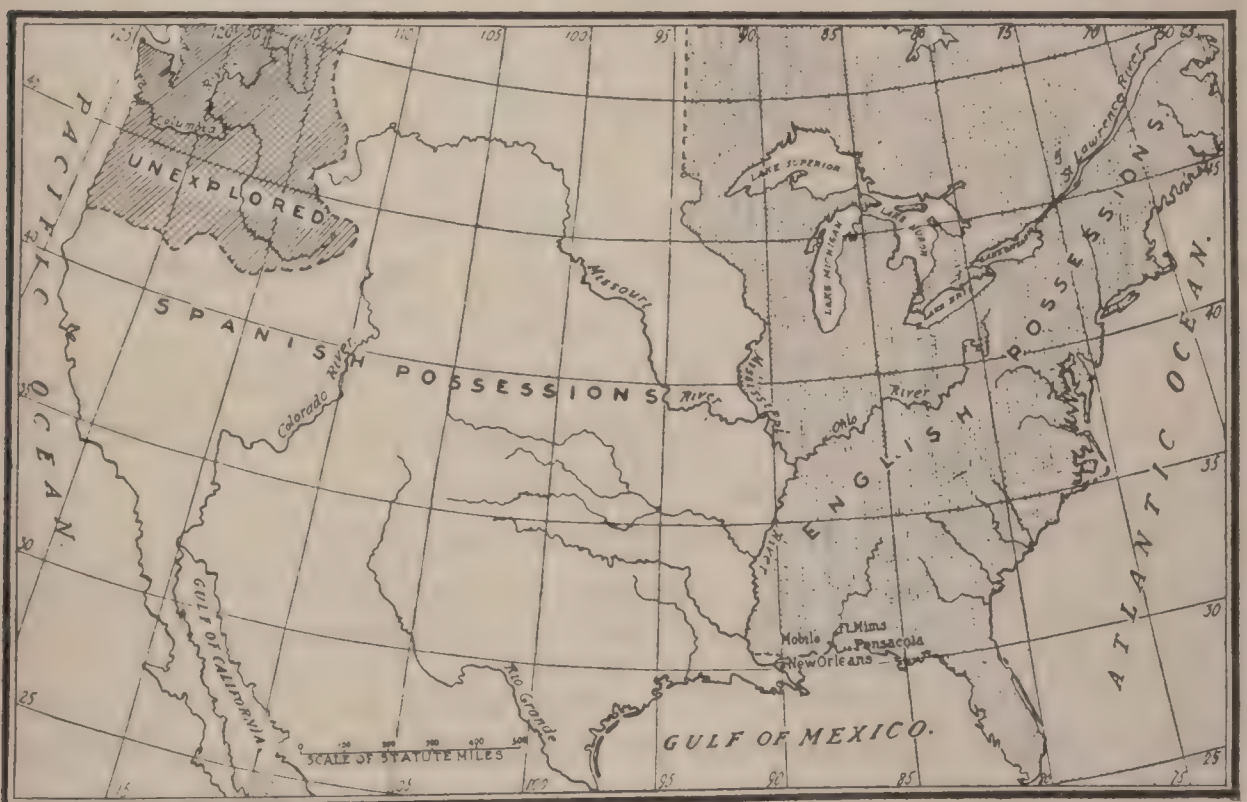
The Treaty of Paris, 1763, and Results of the War. The

treaty of peace was signed at Paris, 1763. The ambitions of France vanished like a dream. She gave up all her possessions in America except two small islands (Miquelon and St. Pierre) off the coast of Newfoundland, which she was permitted to keep, on which to dry fish.

1. To England she gave Canada and all her possessions (excepting New Orleans) east of the Mississippi river.

2. To Spain she gave New Orleans and all her possessions west of the Mississippi in exchange for aid which Spain had given France.

3. Spain ceded Florida to England in exchange for Havana and Manila, which England had taken from Spain while at war with England.



TERRITORIAL POSSESSIONS, 1763 TO 1783.

These were great territorial changes—a turning-point in modern history. The Latin race gave way to the Teutonic, which made possible the growth of the ideas, laws, customs and liberties of the English people. There were other results. The war taught the colonists self-confidence. The destruction of the French power freed the colonists from the danger of

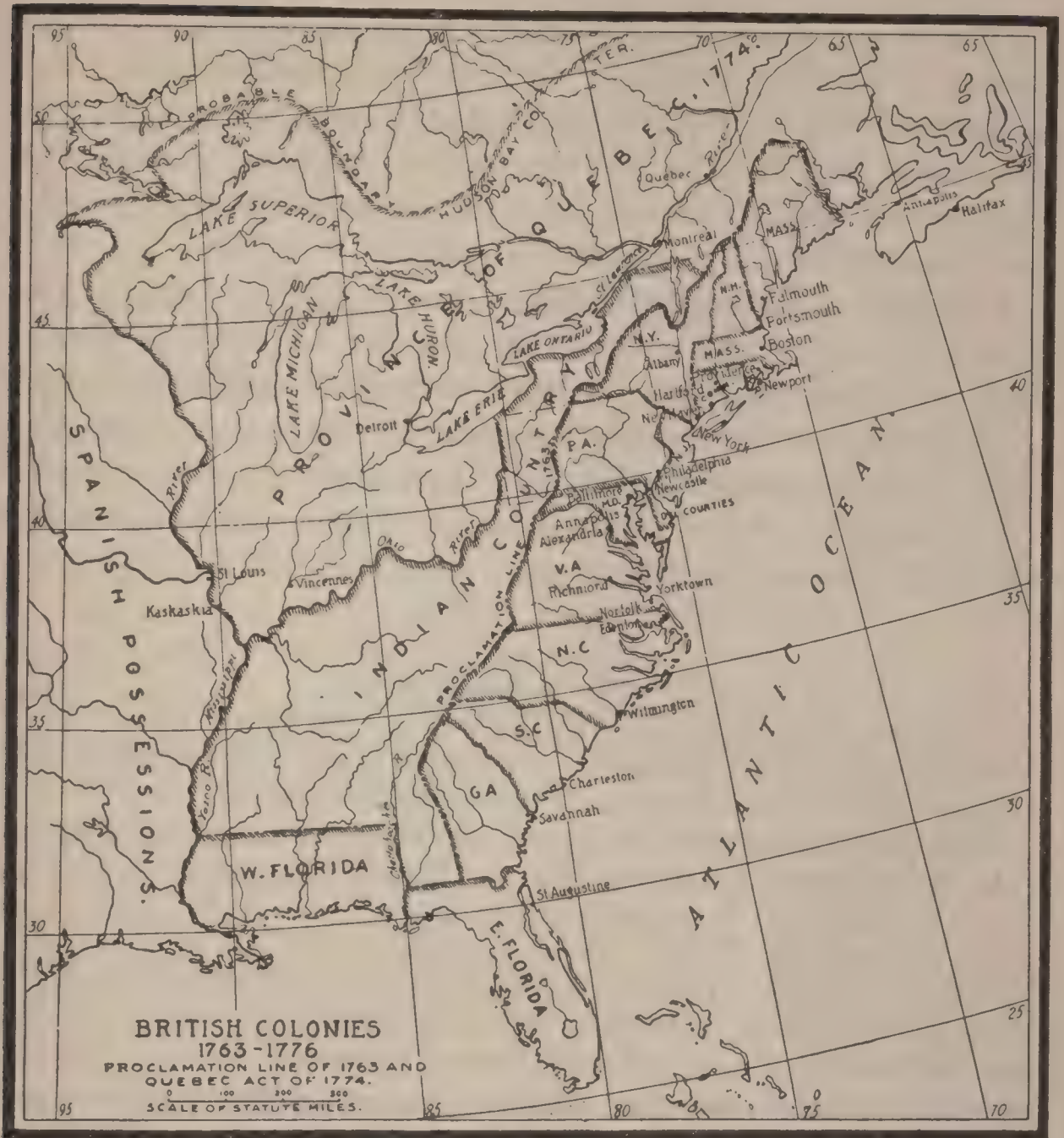
French invasion and made them less dependent on England. When soldiers from different colonies fought side by side, they developed broader views and kindlier feelings, which strengthened the spirit of unity in the colonies. The war served also as a school for military training, which was of great value to the colonies a few years later in their war for independence.

Pontiac's Conspiracy, 1763. Regarding the English as a more dangerous foe, the Indians disliked the transfer of Canada from France to England. They had seen the colonies along the coast fill up with white men, and viewed with alarm the probable destruction of their hunting-grounds in the West. Pontiac, an able Ottawa chief, formed a league or conspiracy of a number of tribes to capture all forts and destroy all settlements west of the mountains, and thus hold back the tide of English invasion. In 1763, without warning, they began their deadly work. Hundreds of the settlers were massacred, thousands fled from the outlying settlements, and most of the western forts were captured. After two years of bloody war the Indians were defeated, Pontiac was killed by an Indian, and peace was restored.

New Provinces. The new territory of the continent acquired by the war was divided by the King into three provinces: Quebec, East Florida, and West Florida.

Proclamation Line and Indian Country. The ink used in signing the treaty of peace was hardly dry before the King issued a proclamation (October, 1763) which restricted the thirteen colonies to the territory east of the Appalachian Mountains, for they were ordered not to issue grants or patents "for lands beyond the heads or sources of any rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean from the west or northwest." The country west of the crest of the mountains was set apart for the Indians, and became known as the Indian Country.

EAST FLORIDA AND WEST FLORIDA. The territory given up by Spain was divided into East Florida and West Florida. West Florida extended from the Mississippi river to the Chattahoochee and Apalachicola rivers, south of a parallel drawn through the mouth of the Yazoo river. East Florida included



PROCLAMATION LINE, INDIAN COUNTRY, PROVINCE OF QUEBEC, AND THE FLORIDAS.

the limits of the present state as far west as the Apalachicola river.

THE QUEBEC ACT. The province of Quebec lay north of New York (parallel 45) and New England. But in 1774, by the Quebec Act, the province was enlarged to include the Hudson Bay territory and all land west ~~to~~ the mountain-crest, south of the Ohio river and west of the Mississippi. The Act allowed religious toleration, thus securing the loyalty of the French Canadians during the crisis ~~to~~ the American Revolution.

The policy of the British government was somewhat fitful.

At first it gave grants extending "from sea to sea." It encouraged the Ohio Company to make settlements west of the mountains, but in 1763 it prohibited settlement west of the mountains, and in 1774, by the Quebec Act, the boundary of Canada was extended southward to the Ohio river, embracing land claimed by four English colonies.

This plan of limiting the colonies to the territory east of the mountain-crest would weaken the growing importance of the stronger colonies, and the territory west of the mountains could be more easily broken up into new and smaller colonies when the time came to form them. The government acted on the theory that a number of small colonies could be more easily managed than a few large ones.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What was the cause of King William's War? Of Queen Anne's War? Of King George's War? Name the treaty that closed each war, giving the terms of each. Was Europe interested in these wars?

What were the causes of the French and Indian War? What was the Ohio Company? What claims did the French have to the region in dispute? What was Washington's first public service? Who was sent to build a fort on the Ohio? Why? What was Franklin's plan of union? Why rejected? Tell of Braddock's defeat. Of the Acadians. What treaty closed the war? Date? What were the terms of the treaty? What changes were made in the map of America? What Indian war followed? What four provinces were organized under English authority? What was the Proclamation Line? The Quebec Act? How did the colonies like England's plan?

Tell something of the following named persons, places, and dates: Christopher Gist, George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, Wolfe, Montcalm, Pitt; Fort Duquesne, Quebec; 1682, 1702, 1754, 1763.

Color a map showing the territorial possession before and after the war.

CHAPTER X.

LIFE IN THE COLONIES.

Constructing Homes. The first problem to be solved by the pioneer was that of providing shelter for himself and family. There was an abundance of timber, but there were no mills to convert the trees into lumber. A few took pattern from the Indian wigwams, and built temporary houses of plaited grass or rush mats, or of the skins of animals stretched over a framework of poles; but most of the hardy immigrants, armed with their trusty axes, marched boldly into the forest, felled trees and erected log cabins. The roof was usually of bark or thatch, but in some of the better cabins it was of clapboards, a rough sort of shingle, split or rived from some straight-grained wood with an instrument called a frow. The cracks between the logs were "chinked" with pieces of wood, which were then backed with clay. The fireplace at one end of the cabin was usually a pen of logs lined with clay. It was large enough to take in logs of wood four or five feet long, and during the long, cold winters large quantities of fuel were consumed. The chimney was constructed of sticks and clay, though sometimes stone fireplaces and chimneys were built.

Nails, iron hinges and locks were scarce, and could be obtained only at considerable expense, hence most of the early dwellings were built without them. The rows of clapboards on the roof were held in place by poles, fastened at each end by wooden pins; wooden or leather hinges were used to swing the door, and a wooden latch, raised from the outside by pulling a string, was the only fastening. To prevent prowlers or unwelcome visitors from entering the cabin, the "latch-string" was pulled inside at night and thus the door was locked. This custom gave rise to the expression, "The latch-string is always

out," to signify that one would be a welcome visitor at any time.

The windows of the first houses were small. Oiled paper was generally used to admit the light, but some houses were without windows. Long after the towns and cities had window-glass the frontier settlements used the oiled paper for admitting light, and heavy wooden shutters for protection.

The floor of the rude dwelling was usually nothing more than "Mother Earth." A "puncheon" floor* was an indica-

tion of aristocratic tendencies and was regarded as a luxury. The rude log cabin was the home not only of the early colonists, but also of the pioneers of a later date, as the line of settlement moved westward across the country. It was in such a humble cabin of one room that Abraham Lincoln was born.



THE LINCOLN CABIN.

The cabin in which Abraham Lincoln was born is a fair type of the cabin of colonial days.

Furniture and Cooking Utensils. Having erected the cabin, the next problem was to provide it with furniture. A few instances are recorded where the house was built around a large stump, which was smoothed off on top, thus making a firm, substantial table. Packing-boxes in which goods had been shipped from England were carefully preserved and the boards were used for tables and shelves, the latter being supported on pins driven into holes bored in the logs that formed the cabin walls. The frow was again called into use where boards could not be found, and a thin puncheon, smoothed as well as the circumstances and the tools of the pioneer would permit, was prepared for a table-board. This was supported by trestles, and when not in actual use could be set in the end of the cabin out of the way.

* A "puncheon" floor was made of split logs, hewed flat with the adz or broad-ax.

A few chairs were brought from the old country, but in many homes the seats were rude benches formed by driving pins into short sections of split trees and smoothing the flat side. Cooking-stoves were unknown. Across the fireplace was a "lug-pole" or "back-bar" of iron, or more frequently of some green wood which would char slowly, and upon this lug-pole were hooks of different lengths for holding pots and kettles in which food was cooked. The iron swinging crane did not come into use until about the middle of the eighteenth century. Some of the kettles were of brass, holding ten or fifteen gallons each. Iron pots frequently weighed as much as forty pounds. Often several kinds of vegetables and a generous piece of meat were boiled in one of these pots at the same time, giving rise to the phrase, "New England boiled dinner." Bread was baked in a long-handled iron skillet with three legs and an iron lid. After the dough was placed in the skillet and the skillet was set upon a bed of hot coals, the iron lid was covered with coals so that the bread would bake from above and below.

After the meal was cooked it was eaten from wooden or pewter plates, or from wooden trenchers. Spoons of wood or pewter were used to serve the food, which was eaten without forks, now so common in every household. The first fork in America was brought over for Governor John Winthrop, in 1633, but forks did not come into general use until some thirty or forty years later.

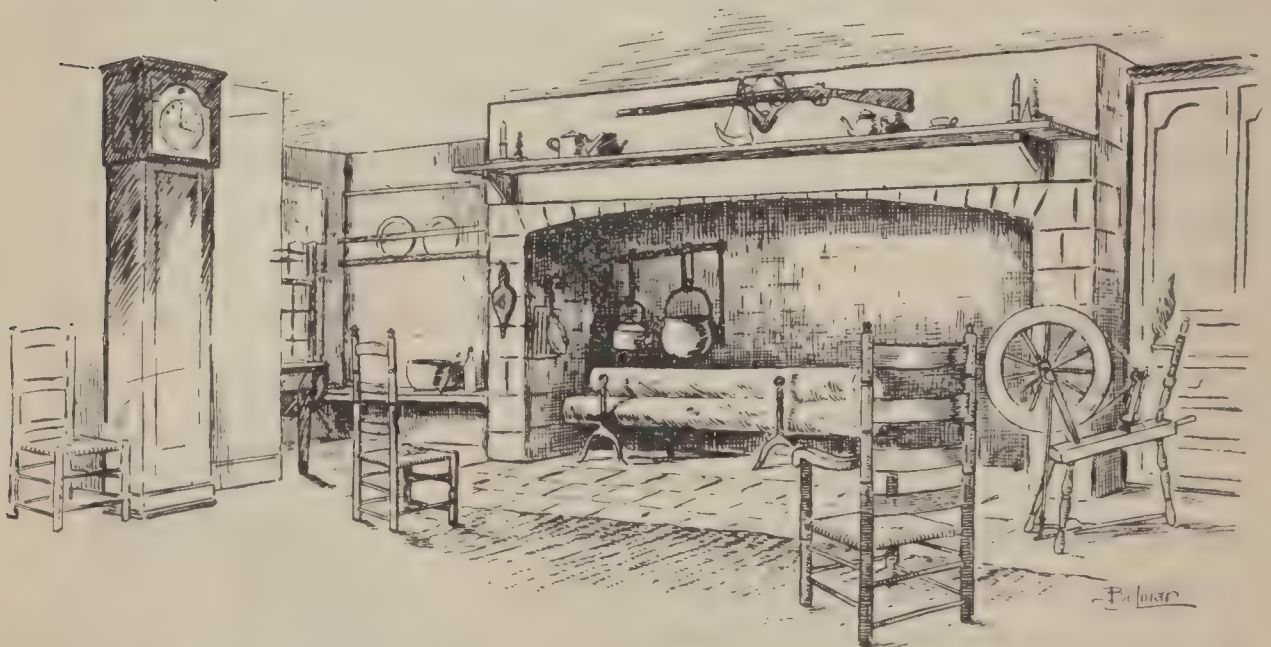
Methods of Starting Fire. One great care of the household was to preserve fire. Matches were not invented until about 1827. If the fire was allowed to go out, some one of the family was sent to the nearest neighbor with a shovel or covered pan for a supply of live coals for re-lighting it. When the nearest neighbor was too far away for this, the flint and steel were brought into use. Tinder, made from worn-out cotton and linen garments, was carefully pre-



BRINGING LIVE COALS TO START
THE FIRE.

served in a tinder-box. By striking a spark with the flint and steel and allowing it to catch in the tinder, fire could be obtained. Patience and perseverance were necessary in applying this method, half an hour or more often being consumed in the efforts to renew the fire. Another way of starting a fire was to flash a little powder in the pan of an old-fashioned flint-lock gun, a twist of tow or a bunch of tinder being held close to the pan, to be ignited by the flash. Often several attempts were necessary before the tow or tinder would "catch." Hence, it will be seen that the preservation of fire on the premises was an important matter.

Stoves were not introduced until about 1700, the Pennsylvania Germans being the first to use them. They were of various shapes and kinds; a curious one was made of sheet metal in the shape of a box, with two sides and an end within the house and



KITCHEN FIREPLACE.

the other end, having the stove door, outside the house. When the fire was to be made or fed, it was necessary to go out of doors to look after it. A great improvement was made in 1744 in methods of heating when Benjamin Franklin invented a new stove, which received the name of the "New Pennsylvania Fireplace." No dwelling, however, was complete without the good old-fashioned fireplace so common in all the colonies.

"Tallow Dips," Lamps and Lights. In the modern city,

to light a room it is only necessary to turn an electric switch or strike a match and apply it to a gas-jet. In the colonial days no such convenience was known. In some localities, where pine timber was plentiful, the "fat" knots were gathered from the forest and laid up for lighting purposes during the winter. When thrown on the fire these knots, being full of pitch, would blaze up and give sufficient light to enable one to attend to ordinary duties about the room. Next in order was the "tallow dip" or tallow candle. The "dip" was made by twisting wicks of loose-spun hemp, tow or cotton, suspending several of them from a slender rod and dipping them into a kettle of melted tallow. As soon as the tallow had cooled they were again dipped, the process being repeated until a sufficient amount of grease adhered to the wick to form a rude candle. It was not a satisfactory manner of lighting when compared with modern methods, but it was often the best to be had. Candles were made by drawing wicks through tin cylinders called candle-moulds and filling the moulds with hot tallow, which was allowed to cool. These candles were firmer and better than the "dips." Wax candles were made by pressing warm beeswax or bayberry wax around a wick by hand. Lamps for burning fish oil or whale oil were also used. These lamps were generally shallow dishes with a spout on one side. They were filled with the oil, and in this was placed a loosely twisted cotton wick, frequently made from a strip of old cotton cloth, which was allowed to extend a short distance from the spout. The end of this wick was then lighted, and while it emitted considerable smoke and an unpleasant odor, it gave light enough to enable one to read.

Character of Food. The food supply was another problem that confronted the early settlers. Game was plentiful in the forests and the trusty rifle could be relied upon to furnish meat, but breadstuffs were harder to obtain. Wheat and other grains brought from Europe did not at first thrive well in the New World, and Indian corn or maize soon came to be relied upon as the chief source of bread. In the course of time, however, wheat and rye were extensively grown and used. After

the corn was raised it had to be ground into meal, and as mills had not yet been built, the Indian mortar was used. The mortar was made by hollowing out a block of hard wood or the stump of a tree. In this the corn was placed and pounded with a heavy block of wood called a pestle, until it was reduced to a coarse meal. Following the mortar came the hand-mill, made of two flat stones, the upper one of which was turned by hand. The first windmill was set up in Virginia, in 1621, and ten years later one was built at Watertown, Massachusetts. By the middle of the seventeenth century there were a number of water-mills in operation in the colonies.

The "Whip-saw," Sawmills, and Better Dwellings. Such were the modes of living of the early American colonists. As the hardy pioneers conquered the wilderness and cleared small tracts of land around their homes, they turned their attention to the construction of better dwellings. The first lumber was made with the "whip-saw." A log was flattened on the top and bottom, and on the upper surface were drawn lines indicating the thickness of the proposed boards. The log was then mounted on a scaffold high enough to allow a man to stand beneath to pull the saw downward, another man standing on the top of the log to guide the saw and draw it up after each stroke. The process was a slow one, yet much of the first lumber was made in this fashion. The first sawmill operated by water-power was built at Salmon Falls, New Hampshire, in 1663, and it was the beginning of the great shipbuilding industry of New England.

With the introduction of the sawmill and the increase of wealth and prosperity came a better class of houses. Frame buildings with wooden floors became common, and some of the richer class erected brick houses and provided them with glass windows instead of the oiled paper used in the first dwellings. Some of the wealthy planters erected spacious mansions. A good example of these is the home of George Washington, still preserved at Mount Vernon, on the banks of the Potomac; but still more beautiful and spacious is Sabin Hall, in Virginia, the home of one of the Carters.



SABIN HALL, ONE OF THE COLONIAL MANSIONS.

Clothing, and How it was Prepared. Each family brought from the old country a supply of clothing. As this supply wore out the question of providing new clothing presented itself. Leggings and hunting-shirts of buckskin played an important part in the costume of the men, but this material was hardly suited to the women and children. Flax was cultivated and sheep were raised to provide the raw materials for linen and woolen cloths. The fiber of the flax was separated from the straw by the use of the "flax-brake," the "swingling-knife" and the "hetchel," all hand processes, after which it was spun into thread by the thrifty housewife on the little foot-wheel, and woven into cloth on the hand loom. Wool was rolled into long strips by the hand cards—



FLAX-SPINNING.

thin pieces of board, on one side of which were set wire teeth, slightly bent, forming a coarse brush. After the wool was "carded" it was spun into yarn on a larger wheel than that used for flax-spinning, the operator walking back and forth as she drew out the thread and then wound it up on a bobbin fastened to the rapidly revolving spindle. A good spinner could spin six "cuts" or six skeins of yarn a day, but in doing so would have to walk about twenty miles. Skins were tanned and shoes were made in almost every household. Straw hats for summer wear were braided by hand, and in the winter home-made fur caps, fashioned from the skins of small animals, were the popular head-gear for men and boys, the women wearing sunbonnets in the summer and caps or shawls fastened over their heads in the winter. From the woolen yarn the women knitted hose and mittens, and from the linen cloth were made tablecloths, napkins, towels, sheets, and pillow-cases. After the cultivation of cotton became sufficiently important, cotton cloth took the place of linen to a large extent.

In fact, in colonial days every farmhouse was a little factory that supplied the family with clothing, the household with much of the furniture and the farm with many crude implements for agriculture. How different then from the present day, when the land is dotted over with large cotton and woolen mills, clothing factories, shoe factories, etc., and when every village and city has stores for the sale of almost everything worn or used by the human race.

Social Distinctions. From the earliest settlement of America the population was divided into social classes, due in a great measure to the customs of the European countries from which they emigrated. While not many titled persons came to America, there were a few in each colony who were looked upon as social leaders. Slavery was introduced at an early date, and the slaves constituted the lowest social class. Next to them were the indentured white servants, many of whom were criminals, thrust upon the colonies by the mother country. Another class of bond servants were the redemptioners, who voluntarily sold themselves for a certain length of time in pay-

ment of their passage across the ocean. Next above the indentured servants and redemptioners were the mechanics, small farmers, and retail merchants. The highest social class was composed of the ministers, lawyers, physicians, colonial officials, and rich planters, or—in New York—the patroons. Marriage between persons of different social standing was opposed, especially by those of the upper classes. In some churches the people were seated according to their social rank, and it was not an uncommon thing for the poorer members of the congregation to remain outside the church until the rich planters and the professional men and their families were seated in their pews. With the advent of better houses, as above mentioned, class distinctions became more marked. Social standing was also shown in dress. The slaves wore very little clothing, which was usually made of the cheapest materials. The middle classes dressed somewhat better, while the members of the highest class appeared to make every effort to show their superiority in their wearing-apparel. The men powdered their hair, wore wigs, velvet coats, silk stockings, and carried gold and silver snuffboxes. The women, particularly on great occasions, wore silks, satins and velvets imported from London. But with the growth of the spirit of liberty, social distinctions were practically leveled, and the Declaration of Independence, which set forth the dogma “That all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights,” struck the final blow to social caste in this country.

Means of Travel and Transportation. The early settlements were nearly always established near the seacoast or upon the banks of some river. This was done for convenience of communication. Roads had not yet been opened, and for some time the colonists passed from one settlement to another in their small sail-boats or canoes. Boats were either canoes made from birch bark or “dugouts” made by hollowing out logs for the reception of persons and parcels. These were from twenty to twenty-five feet long by two or three feet in width, and were propelled through the water with a broad paddle, which was used first on one side and then on the other, to keep

the canoe in its course. If a journey was to be made overland, it was usually done on foot or on horseback through the woods. The first roads were nothing more than routes "blazed" through the forests; that is, the bark was chopped off the trees at intervals along the proposed pathway, the "blazes" standing out clear and white in the shadows of the trees to guide the traveler. For fully half a century after the first colonies were established, the principal mode of land travel for any considerable distance was on horseback. As late as 1672 there were but six stage-coaches in New England, and only one private coach in Boston. Pack-horses were used to transport goods to the settlements in the interior until roads were opened and wheeled vehicles came into use.

Conestoga Wagons and Stage-Coach Lines. Pennsylvania was one of the first of the colonies to use wagons. Consequently the roads there were among the best in the country in the early days, and it is said that during the Revolution nearly all the wagons and horses used by the colonial army came from Pennsylvania. These wagons, known as the "Conestoga wagons," came into general use about 1760. The first



CONESTOGA WAGON AND A WAYSIDE INN.

stage-coach was placed in operation between Philadelphia and New York in 1766. It was described as "the flying-machine, a good stage-wagon set on springs," and under favorable conditions could make the trip of about ninety miles in two days.

The next year a stage-coach line was opened between Boston and Providence. After the Revolution the people began to construct turnpikes, and the number of stage lines increased rapidly, until one could go almost anywhere by stage. Until the building of the turnpikes nearly all the carriages were two-wheeled vehicles, called chaises, or sulkies. Short journeys were frequently made in sedan chairs—strong, covered seats which were fastened to two long handles so that they could be carried by either two or four persons. This was a favorite mode of travel for persons of distinction.

“The Wayside Inn.” With the building of the turnpike and the introduction of the stage-coach came the “wayside inn” or stage tavern, such houses being located at convenient intervals along the route. They were not only stopping-places for travelers, but also drinking-houses and places at which to gossip, to get the latest news and discuss religion and politics. Much of the history of the country centers about these taverns, where many political schemes had their origin.

Education. Education commanded the attention of the colonists at an early date. As soon as dwellings had been erected a block-house was built for protection against Indian raids; then came the church, and after it the school-house. If the population of the settlement was sufficient, a regular teacher was employed; if not, the minister often acted as teacher. This condition prevailed especially in the northern colonies; but in the South, where slave labor was employed more extensively, the wealthy planters employed private tutors for their sons and daughters, and the poorer classes were given little or no opportunity to acquire an education. Public schools sprang up in Pennsylvania very early. In 1700 every county in New Jersey had a school maintained by taxation, and before the Revolution New England had a school for each town and a college for every colony. There was no public school system in Virginia before the Revolution, yet within this colony was founded the second college in America. Harvard College, in Massachusetts, was founded in 1636; William and Mary, in Virginia, in 1693; Yale, in Connecticut, in 1701; Brown, in

Rhode Island, in 1764; and Dartmouth, in New Hampshire, in 1769. The middle colonies were not much behind New England in establishing institutions of higher learning. Princeton College, in New Jersey, was founded in 1746; Kings (now Columbia), in New York, in 1754; the University of Pennsylvania, in 1755; and Rutgers College, in New Jersey, in 1770. William and Mary College, at Williamsburg, Virginia, founded in 1693, was the only institution of the kind in the southern colonies, and many of the young men of the South attended the northern colleges.

Newspapers. The first printing in the colonies was done at Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1639, and the first newspaper issued in America was named "*Publick Occurrences*," published by Benjamin Harris at Boston, September 25, 1690. It was condemned by the authorities for containing "reflections of a very high nature," and its publication stopped. The first permanent newspaper was the *Boston News-Letter*, which made its appearance in 1704. It was soon followed by newspapers in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, and some other cities. At the beginning of the Revolution every colony had one or more printing-presses. The first daily was the *Packet*, of Philadelphia, started in 1784. In those days the mails were carried by post-riders, who followed the roads where there were any, and at other times made their way along the forest trails. Newspapers were not permitted to go through the mails, but had to be carried by private arrangement. These early papers were small, poorly printed and poorly edited, containing little that would be called news at the present time. There was then no telegraph service for the hasty transmission of news, and the advertisements were chiefly for the recovery of slaves or indentured servants.

Pastimes and Amusements. All that has been said above concerning colonial life relates to the busy side of that life. But the colonists had their recreations and pastimes as well as their toils and cares. The rifle was the constant companion of the pioneer. It helped to provide the family's food and afforded protection against the Indians. The result was that the colo-

nists became expert marksmen. Shooting-matches were therefore common. A score-keeper was selected, and the one who hit the mark the most frequently in a given number of trials was declared the champion,—a proud distinction in those days when the American rifleman was at his best. There were also “training-days,” when the militia met for drill. Such occasions were general holidays. After the drill there were foot-races, wrestling-matches, and athletic contests of various kinds, the whole ending not infrequently with a shooting-match. Then again there were husking-bees, and sleighing and skating parties in the northern colonies, while farther south fox-hunting was a popular sport. Dancing was the principal indoor pleasure in the South. In the North the winter indoor pleasures were generally of a quiet character, and were conducted in front of the great fireplace. Frequently the women would combine labor with pleasure by engaging in spinning, sewing or quilting “bees.” Neighbors would gather to pass the long winter evenings in social conversation, telling stories, propounding conundrums or riddles, cracking nuts, eating apples, or taking part in some form of simple, wholesome amusement.

Money of the Colonists. The early colonists brought but little money with them, and, as there were no gold or silver mines worked in the settlements, the supply of these metals was very limited. The only source from which coin could be obtained was through trade and shipping; but as imports were usually greater than exports, the movement of gold and silver was rather out of the colonies than into them, so the supply of money did not keep pace with the growth of population and commerce. The coins in use were chiefly Spanish, English, Portuguese, and Dutch, and were of different value in different colonies.

In consequence of the scarcity of money, the colonists were compelled to resort to various devices to provide a medium of exchange. Much of the business in early times was by barter. Shells and wampum were sometimes used as substitutes for money. Later, certain staple commodities were by law declared to be legal tender in payment of debts. These in New

England were chiefly corn, cattle, and furs; and in the South, tobacco and rice. Taxes were frequently paid by taking prod-



FRONT AND BACK OF PINE-TREE
SHILLING.

ucts to storehouses, maintained by the colonists, in which public property was placed. Tuition in college was paid in meat, live-stock, produce, etc. Records of Harvard College show that a student, who became president of the college,* settled his

bill (1649) with "an old cow." Massachusetts was the only colony that ever established a mint. In it were coined the famous pine-tree shillings and other small coins; but the mint was closed in 1684 by order of the King.

Paper Money. It is not strange that the colonists began the use of paper money, or bills of credit as they were called, for they were mere promises on the part of the colonists to pay certain sums. These bills depreciated greatly. In some colonies a dollar in paper became worth only a few cents in exchange for coin. In the absence of something better, all the colonies except North Carolina made liberal use of paper money,† until Parliament finally passed a law forbidding them to issue any more of it,—an act which provoked great colonial opposition and which was one of the many measures on the part of England which caused the Revolution.

RELIGION IN THE COLONIES.

The Colonies Settled by Persons of Deep Religious Convictions. Religion was a great factor in the making of our nation. The founders of the original colonies were for the most part men deeply moved by the religious motive. The Pilgrims who founded Plymouth Colony came to America to find religious liberty. The germ of our nation is found in a remarkable document which they signed in the Mayflower's cabin. It begins with the words, "In the name of God, Amen." It may

* It was Reverend John Rodgers, fifth president of Harvard, serving from 1682-1684.

† Massachusetts first issued paper currency in 1690, to pay the soldiers who took part in the expedition against Louisburg in the French war. The other colonies followed her example, and in 1775 eleven of them were using this kind of money.

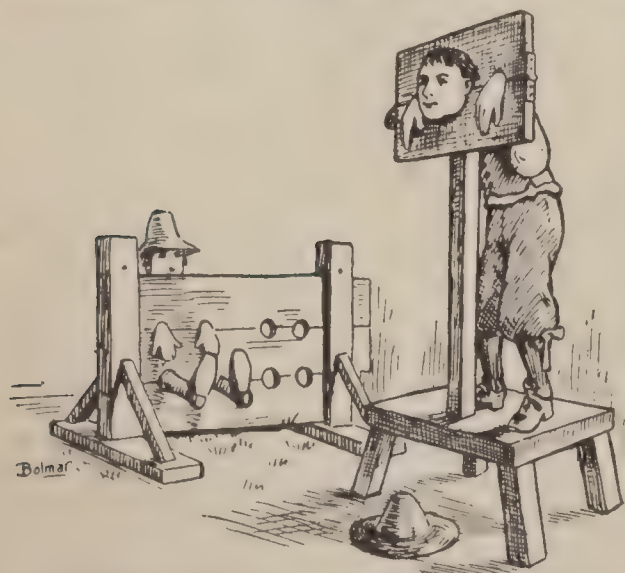
well be called the forerunner of the Declaration of Independence. Rev. John Davenport, a Puritan minister, was leader of the colony that settled New Haven; Roger Williams, another minister, founded Rhode Island; William Penn, the Quaker, founded Pennsylvania; James Drummond, a Presbyterian minister, was the first governor of North Carolina; John and Charles Wesley the founders of Methodism, and George Whitefield, the most famous preacher of his day, were among the early settlers in Georgia. The Puritans settled New England; Dutch Calvinists, New York and New Jersey; Swedish Lutherans, Delaware; Quakers, Pennsylvania; Roman Catholics, Maryland; Episcopalians, Virginia; and French Huguenots, the Carolinas.

The early settlers were mostly Protestants, and for the most part held those religious views which are known as Calvinism. They disliked the episcopal form of church government with its bishops. They thought it was too closely identified with monarchical government and the rule of kings. They were very rigid in their own ideas, and for a long time there was little of the religious tolerance that we enjoy today. The Puritans tried hard to keep the Baptists and Quakers out of New England, the Dutch did not want the Quakers in New York, and Governor Berkeley was determined that worship in Virginia should be conducted only by episcopal ministers and according to the rites of the Church of England. But in course of time a greater tolerance became manifest, and the various Christian bodies learned to allow to others the rights they claimed for themselves. In New England the Puritan churches and in Virginia the Episcopal churches were established by law, but later the church and state were separated forever.

INFLUENCE OF MINISTERS. The ministers, especially in New England, were the most highly educated men of their times, and exercised great influence upon public affairs. In New England the Election Day sermon was a great event. The ministers had much of the narrowness and bigotry of their times, but they encouraged schools and education and an intelligent citizenship. The early colleges of the country were all founded with a dis-

tinctly religious purpose, and were intended to provide an educated ministry and a Christian education to the young men of the colonies. The education of girls and women beyond the merest rudiments was not then thought of any consequence.

VIEWS ON PRACTICAL QUESTIONS. The religious ideas of the colonial period demanded a very rigid keeping of the Sabbath, and punctual attendance upon church services. The church services were long and tiresome, the sermons sometimes being two hours long. The churches were not heated in the winter, but some of the worshippers carried foot-stoves filled with coals. In some of the colonies, if a man were not a church member he had no vote. The standard of morals insisted upon by the religious people of the period as a whole was high, yet many customs were practiced and many things accepted as a matter of course that now would not be tolerated. Lotteries are now forbidden by law, but then they were resorted to as a means of raising money for public purposes, even to build churches and colleges. Faneuil Hall in Boston was once rebuilt after a fire with money raised by a lottery. Drunkenness was frowned upon, yet there were few if any total abstainers. In the records of some of the old New England churches there are found bills allowed for liquors furnished the clergy at ordinations and in-



IN THE STOCKS.

IN THE PILLORY.

underestimate the religious factor of the colonial period, and not to forget the impress of worth put by religion upon our institutions in their formative period.

stallations. The stocks, the pillory, the public whipping-post, and the public execution of criminals were then common and the religious people saw in them nothing to protest against. Many beliefs were held even by the intelligent and educated that would now be regarded as superstition. We must be careful not to

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What was the first problem to be solved by the pioneer? How were cabins built? What was the "latch-string"? Describe the furniture and cooking utensils of colonial days. Tell of the "New England boiled dinner." How was fire kept? Started? What was the "New Pennsylvania Fireplace"? What were "fat knots"? Tallow dips? What were the chief sources of food? What was the mortar? What was a whip-saw? Of what value was it? What was the flax-brake? Tell of the spinning-wheel. Give an account of the home industries. Tell of the different social classes—slaves, servants, planters. Tell of the routes of travel, means of travel, dugouts, Conestoga wagons. What are turn-pikes? What is meant by "wayside inn"? What progress was made in education during colonial days? Name some of the first colleges. Tell about the newspapers and transmission of news. Describe the amusements of the colonists. What kinds of money were used? Tell what influence religion had on building the colonies.

CHAPTER XI.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

CAUSES AND EVENTS LEADING TO THE REVOLUTION.

The Colonists. Most of the colonists were thorough Englishmen. They were loyal to their country and proud of their origin. They had a great reverence for English ideas; for some, merely because they were English. English fashions were studiously copied. King George had no more devoted subjects than were those in America, and the triumph of England over France nowhere gave greater joy than in the American colonies. But these Americans cherished the Englishman's ideals of right, justice, and liberty. In fact, it was because the enjoyment of these blessings was denied to them by their government that many had come to America from England. When the King refused his American subjects the rights of Englishmen there was trouble, strife, and then — the great American Revolution, which marks an epoch not only in the annals of America but in the history of the world.

The English Colonial Policy. The colonies belonged to England, but the King and Parliament would not concede to them the same political and commercial rights as to England. This was a fatal mistake. It led to the passage of laws harmful to the colonists and beneficial to the English. This theory of colonial government, then common among the nations of Europe, gave England a temporary benefit, but finally resulted in disaster. In accord with this policy, the British government planned to give the people in England an advantage, by controlling the commerce and many industries of the colonies. To secure these ends a number of laws, a summary of which here follows, were passed :

LAWS REGULATING TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.

1. The Navigation Acts (see p. 59) required the colonists (with certain exceptions) to ship their goods only to English ports and in English or colonial vessels manned by English seamen.

2. In 1673 restrictions were placed on trade between the colonies.

3. In 1696 a commission was formed in England, called the Lords of the Board of Trade and Plantations. Its business was to look after the trade relations with the colonies, to make recommendations to colonial governors, and to recommend the veto or approval of laws made by the colonies.

4. The next year (1697) courts of admiralty were established to try, without a jury, violators of the navigation laws.

5. In 1699 Parliament passed a law prohibiting the colonists from shipping wool, yarn, woolen manufactures, or any kind of cloth from one colony to another, under penalty of a heavy fine.

6. As furs were cheap and plentiful, the manufacturing of fur hats had become an important industry. At least 10,000 beaver hats were annually made in New York and New England. Merchants invaded the markets of Europe. The English manufacturers of felt petitioned Parliament to stop the trade; so in 1732 it passed a law which placed a fine of £500 on any person who should send or ship a hat out of the colony.

7. The Molasses Act of 1733 placed a high duty on sugar and molasses imported from any place other than the British West Indies, which, in effect, made the colonists buy all sugar and molasses from British merchants and planters.

8. In 1750 Parliament passed a law prohibiting all iron-works and steel foundries in the colonies.

In this manner, at the expense of the colonies, England tried to build up trade, commerce and industries at home. It is true, however, that some of these laws were not enforced, and that the colonists either ignored or violated them. Smuggling* became a business.

* Those engaged in smuggling brought goods secretly into the colonies, to avoid paying the tax laid on the goods by the British Government.

Writs of Assistance. When George III. became King, he prepared to stop smuggling by enforcing the navigation acts.



GEORGE III.

Thus he hoped not only to build up the commerce of England, but also to raise money to help pay the heavy debt incurred by the French and Indian war. "Writs of Assistance" or general search warrants had been issued to revenue officers, which authorized them to enter any man's house or store at any time to search for smuggled goods. The merchants of Boston engaged James Otis, a young but able attorney, to oppose in court the issuing of such writs. His eloquent, logical and impassioned speech*

excited great enthusiasm in Massachusetts. The writs, however, were allowed under acts of Parliament. The same practice had been in use in England. The issuance of these writs aroused much ill-feeling and violent opposition among the colonists, for, said they, the home of an Englishman is his castle, not to be entered by law officers with general writs of assistance.

Character of George III. The Governors and Colonists. For two generations England had been ruled chiefly by Parliament. The first two Georges had little to do with the management of the empire, and less with that of the colonies. But when George III. came to the throne, 1760, he took the reins of government into his own hands. Often had he heard this mandate of his mother, "George, be King!" It was no easy task to get Parliament to yield to his will. But, by bribes in money and by the appointment of many members of Parliament and their friends to good offices, he secured control of a majority in Parliament, who worked with him to further his schemes. George III. was self-willed, arbitrary, and of narrow intellect; but he was determined to rule England and the colonies in

* The patriotic John Adams was so impressed with Otis's speech that he said "American independence was then and there born."

his own way, without regard for the rights of the people. He undertook to enforce laws that had been ignored for years, and, with his bribed Parliament, he soon began to enact other laws, which drove the colonies first into *union*, then into *rebellion*.

As we have already seen, some of the royal governors were harsh and arbitrary, making use of their office to secure personal gain. But when they became too overbearing the colonists could refuse, as they sometimes did, to pay them their salary. For the time being, this was pretty certain to procure fairer treatment from the governors.

The colonists had lived for many years far removed from royalty and aristocracy. The spirit of freedom and equality had taken fast hold of them. For years they had practically ruled themselves. They began to look upon liberty and freedom as a birthright, and were ready to resent any attempt to abridge their rights as Englishmen.

The King's Colonial Plans. Sir George Grenville, prime minister, outlined the King's colonial plans. He proposed :

1. To enforce the old trade and navigation laws.
2. To keep 10,000 soldiers permanently in America.
3. To increase the revenue from the colonies. The law (1733) placing a tax on sugar and molasses brought into the colonies was revised, 1764.
4. That a new tax law, called the Stamp Tax, be passed.

Vigorous measures were taken to enforce the old trade and navigation acts. Vessels were stationed along the coasts to watch for smugglers, who, when caught, were to be tried by courts of admiralty.

The 10,000 soldiers were intended, as the King said, to protect the colonists from the Indians and French. It is possible, however, that one of the motives was to strengthen the King's power and to prevent the violation of the revenue laws.

Taxation Without Representation. The question of taxation was of prime importance. The King wanted more revenue from the colonies. The tax collected did not yield sufficient money to pay the officers for collecting it. The quartering of troops in America required more money, and the

colonists were to be compelled to pay part of this increased expense. They opposed paying any tax which was imposed upon them without their consent. They claimed that they were not represented in Parliament, so Parliament had no right to tax them. "Taxation without representation is tyranny," they said. It was not so much the amount of the tax as the principle of it, to which they objected, for they had already paid in taxes levied by themselves, more than their share of the expense of the French and Indian War. They were opposed to all direct taxes laid by Parliament.* They alone, they said, had the right to tax themselves. If the King needed money he should obtain it by a vote of the colonial assemblies, as he formerly had done. But the King and Parliament were determined, and proceeded to carry out their plan of taxation.

The Stamp Act, 1765. Over the protest of the Americans, the Stamp Act was passed in March, to go into effect Novem-



STAMPS.

ber 1st, 1765. The act was a lengthy document. If bound together it would make a small book. It provided that all bills, notes, bonds, bills of lading, licenses, marriage certificates, and other legal documents, should be written or printed on stamped paper made in England. All pamphlets, almanacs, newspapers

and business forms were taxed. The stamps cost all the way from one penny to fifty dollars. If a man got a marriage license, transacted any business, or bought a newspaper, he was sure to pay a tax. The money raised was to be used in America in support of the army.

OPPOSITION TO STAMP ACT. The passage of the Stamp Act

* A tax on lands, houses, money, furniture, or any other property, is a direct tax. A tax levied on imports, exports, or the manufacture or sale of products, is an indirect tax. This tax is paid through the custom-house to the government, by the importer, or manufacturer, as the case may be. The tax is added to the cost of the products, and the purchaser in the end pays for it, indirectly. A hat that might be sold for \$2 free of duty would sell for \$2.50 or more, with a duty of 50 cents.

was almost unnoticed in England, even in Parliament there was but little discussion; but in America it aroused a storm of violent opposition. The question was not, Shall America support the army? but, Shall Parliament tax the colonies? The colonists were determined not to be taxed.

SONS OF LIBERTY. In some of the towns people formed themselves into a secret order called the "Sons of Liberty," to oppose the Stamp Act. Public meetings were held to denounce the act. Stamp officers were hung in effigy, and some were forced to resign. Mobs paraded the streets, shouting "Liberty, property, and no stamps!" Sometimes stamp officers were forced to march in the parade and were made to join in the shouting.

NON-IMPORTATION AGREEMENT AND "DAUGHTERS OF LIBERTY." Merchants pledged themselves not to import any goods from England until the Stamp Act was repealed. This was ruinous to some English industries. Hundreds of men were thrown out of work. Business languished. English merchants petitioned Parliament for the repeal of the Stamp Act. But England's loss was America's gain. Manufacturing increased in the colonies, and household industry developed to such an extent that each family could produce the chief necessities. Mothers and daughters took up with greater energy the work of weaving and spinning at home. To them was given the patriotic name of "Daughters of Liberty."

THE VIRGINIA RESOLUTIONS. The House of Burgesses in Virginia passed a set of resolutions denying the right of Parliament to tax the colonies. Patrick Henry, the greatest of colonial orators, in supporting the resolutions, and while alluding to the tyranny of the King, said: "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I. his Cromwell, and George III."—here he paused for a moment for the cry of "Treason! Treason!" raised by several members, to cease, then continued—"may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it." In Massachusetts, James Otis and Samuel Adams were stirring the people to open resistance. Plans were formed for a meeting of delegates from all the colonies, in New York City.

The Stamp Act Congress, 1765. Representatives from nine colonies met October 5, 1765.* After a secret session of twenty days they prepared a Declaration of Rights† and Grievances. They sent a petition to the King and a memorial to both houses of Parliament, expressing their views.

THE STAMP ACT REPEALED. When the 1st of November came, flags were hung at half-mast, bells were muffled and tolled. The colonies were in mourning. Processions carried banners bearing the inscription, "The folly of England and the ruin of America," about the streets. The colonists did not stop with an expression of grief. There was bitter and violent opposition. In most of the colonies, not a stamped piece of paper was to be had. Boxes of stamped paper had been seized by mobs and committed to the flames. Documents were not legal without stamps, so courts were closed, and business came to a standstill. Governors finally issued letters authorizing non-compliance with the law because stamps could not be bought. These difficulties, combined with the cry of distress from the manufacturers in England, led Parliament to repeal the Stamp Act, in March, 1766. But, with the repeal of the act was a declaration that Parliament had the right to tax the colonies "in all cases whatsoever."

The Townshend Acts, 1767. The colonists had rid themselves of one tax, but it was not long till they felt the burden of another. Charles Townshend, Chancellor of the British Exchequer, brought in a new tax law. The colonists had denied that the King had a right to lay a direct tax, but had admitted that he had a right to lay an indirect tax by placing a duty on imports. In accord with this view, Parliament passed a new tax law (1767), which placed a duty on glass, paper, lead,

* The colonies not represented were Virginia, North Carolina, New Hampshire, and Georgia.

† **DECLARATION OF RIGHTS.** 1. That the Colonists have the same allegiance to the crown as Englishmen of the realm. 2. That the colonists are entitled to the same rights as natural-born Englishmen. 3. That Englishmen cannot be taxed except by their own consent. 4. That the colonists are not represented in Parliament. 5. That only representatives of the colonies can tax the colonists. 6. That Parliament cannot grant the property of the colonists to the King. 7. That a trial by jury is the inherent right of every British subject in the colonies. 8. That the Stamp Act and other late acts (the Sugar Act and Trade Acts) tended to subvert the rights and liberties of the colonists.

paints and tea, brought into the colonies. The taxes were not heavy, but the money was to be used for a dangerous purpose—to pay the salaries of governors, judges, and other officers, who would thus become entirely independent of the colonial assemblies. In this way the government would be conducted by officials dependent upon the King.

By another act the legislature of New York was denied the right to pass any more laws until it would comply with the Mutiny Act by furnishing quarters and supplies for the soldiers whom the King had sent.

A third Townshend act created a Board of Commissioners at Boston to enforce the laws regulating trade. Thus, while building up her monopoly in trade, England was increasing her revenues and attempting to widen and strengthen her rule over the colonies.

The Colonies Resist. The merchants renewed their agreement not to import any more British goods. Ships loaded with such imports were sent back. Individuals pledged themselves not to eat, drink or wear anything imported from England until the duties were removed. Some merchants, prompted by love of money, tried to sell British goods, but they were waited on by mobs, and their goods destroyed or reshipped. The legislature of Massachusetts sent a circular letter, prepared by Samuel Adams, to the other colonies (1768), urging them to unite and to protect their rights. This enraged the King. His secretary demanded that the assembly withdraw the letter, and asked the governors of the other colonies to prevent their assemblies from taking notice of it. The assemblies disobeyed. They sent protests to Parliament, petitions to the King, and stirred up sentiment in the colonies against the acts. The legislatures of half the colonies were dissolved. It was impossible to enforce the Townshend Acts without the aid of troops. Riots were common. Two regiments of soldiers and seven ships of war were sent to Boston to strengthen the government. Efforts to enforce the laws brought on collisions. When the revenue officer boarded John Hancock's ship, *Liberty*, he was seized and held by a crowd until the cargo of wines, except

a small amount, was unloaded. Thus the owners forcibly escaped paying the duty. After the officer was released the British men-of-war seized the *Liberty*, because taxes had not been paid on the entire cargo. A riot followed. The custom-house officers were compelled to fly to the barracks for safety. Thus the King and Parliament were defied.

TREASON LAW REVIVED. England added more fuel to the flame when Parliament (1769) threatened to revive an old law (passed in the days of Henry VIII.) to take all persons accused of treason to England for trial.

BOSTON MASSACRE, 1770. The presence of the royal troops everywhere gave great offense to the people. They felt that the last spark of liberty was to be extinguished. No one knew what next to expect. A little incident might produce a great tragedy. On the night of March 5th, 1770, while a crowd of men and boys were taunting some soldiers, the soldiers, either from panic, fear or resentment, fired into the crowd, killing five and wounding six. This event, which has since been known as the Boston Massacre, fanned the passions of the people of the whole land, and helped to hasten the Revolution.

THE GASPEE, 1772. Colonists along the coast of Rhode Island, with muffled oars at night rowed to the *Gaspee*, an armed British vessel which had been patrolling the coast to catch smugglers, overpowered and bound the crew, took them to the shore, and burned the vessel. These events with many others were bringing matters to a crisis.

All Taxes Repealed except those on Tea. About a month after the Boston Massacre, Parliament repealed the duty on all articles except tea, the duty on which was kept to show that Parliament had a right to tax the colonies. But this was the very thing that the colonies opposed. They cared little for the tax; everything for the principle. The King and Parliament had now given up the attempt to tax the colonists for revenue. Their final aim was to uphold the same principle the colonists were opposing. The tax on tea was only threepence a pound. The colonists refused to import, buy or drink tea. Tea had accumulated in the warehouses of the East India

Company to the amount of 17,000,000 pounds. The company was facing bankruptcy. On tea sent to America the British government removed the duty of twelvecence a pound, which was paid in England, so that tea could be purchased more cheaply in America than in England, or than it could be smuggled from Holland. This was a tempting bait, but it did not work. Several shiploads of tea were sent to the colonies, with the hope that the people would buy the tea at a low price when landed. But the colonists would not even allow the tea to be landed. In Philadelphia and New York, the people forced the captains of the tea ships to sail back to England. At Annapolis resolute men forced a rich Tory to set fire to his own ship of tea, and in South Carolina the tea was stored in the custom-house for safe-keeping.

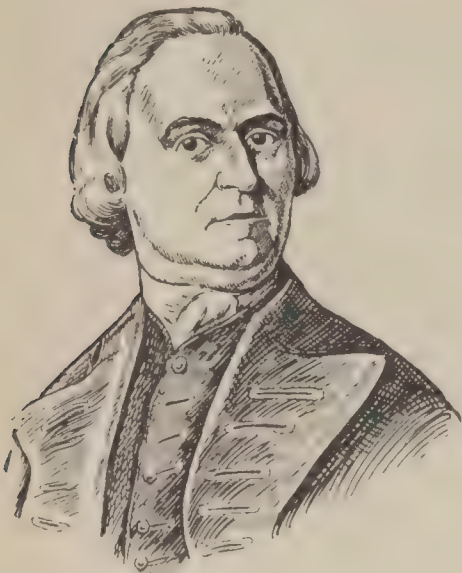
Boston Tea Party. When the tea ships arrived at Boston a public meeting was held in Faneuil Hall, the "Cradle of Liberty," as it was called, at which the act was denounced. Under the leadership of Samuel Adams, a band of men disguised as Mohawk Indians boarded the ships (Dec. 16, 1773), cut open the tea-boxes, and threw the entire cargo of 342 chests into the sea. This incident has since been known as the Boston Tea Party. That very night messengers were sent to inform the other towns of what Boston had done. The next day Paul Revere, the most famous of revolutionary couriers, set out to carry the message to New York and Philadelphia.



FANEUIL HALL.

The Intolerable Acts, 1774. The series of events ending in the Boston Tea Party enraged the King beyond measure. He concluded that the time to conciliate was past, and that the hour for punishment had come. The "Boston rebels" were to be brought to their senses. Five laws, so severe in

their character that they were called by the colonists the "Intolerable Acts," were passed:



SAMUEL ADAMS.

1. THE BOSTON PORT ACT. The Port Act closed the port of Boston, except to food and fuel. No ships with other cargoes were allowed to enter or leave the port. British men-of-war were placed there to enforce the act until Boston should pay for the tea destroyed, amounting to about \$100,000, and would give satisfaction to the King that the laws would in the future be obeyed. The custom-house officers were moved to Salem.

2. THE REGULATION (OR THE MASSACHUSETTS GOVERNMENT) ACT.



BOSTON TEA PARTY.

The King determined to take all power out of the hands of the people of Massachusetts by changing their charter, and making the colony a royal province. The governor appointed by the King was to select and dismiss all sheriffs, judges, and magistrates. The sheriffs were to select the jurymen. The town meeting, except for a few elections, was abolished. Almost every vestige of self-government was destroyed.

3. THE TRANSPORTATION BILL OR ADMINISTRATION OF

JUSTICE gave the colonial governor the power to send anyone indicted for murder, while in the service of the King, to England

or to another colony for trial. This was to make officers more active and fearless in using rigorous means to enforce laws.

4. THE QUARTERING ACT legalized the quartering of troops in the colonies.

5. THE QUEBEC ACT. (See p. 117.)

Gage, general-in-chief of the English army in America, was appointed also governor of Massachusetts. Four more regiments of regulars were placed at his command, with which to enforce the acts and restore order and obedience. If need be he should send Samuel Adams and John Hancock, the great patriotic leaders in Massachusetts, to England for trial. Thus, England hoped to be able to starve or coerce Boston and the rest of Massachusetts into obedience.

The Colonies Unite to Oppose the Intolerable Acts.

Boston was not left to fight her battles alone. A great wave of practical sympathy, borne by an ocean of indignation, swept over the land. South Carolina and Maryland sent corn and rice. Israel Putnam drove a flock of sheep from Connecticut to Boston. George Washington subscribed fifty pounds, and said: "If need be I will raise a thousand men, subsist them at my own expense, and march at their head for the relief of Boston." Patrick Henry declared: "We must fight. I repeat it, sir, we must fight. I know not what course others may pursue, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death." This was the spirit from Maine to Georgia. None of the colonies would stand idly by and see another crushed into submission by the tyranny of an arbitrary king. The Virginia assembly set aside the day on which the Port Act was to go into effect, as a day of "fasting, humiliation and prayer." For this, the governor dismissed the assembly; but its members met again, and appointed a committee to correspond with the other colonies for the purpose of calling a meeting of delegates from all the colonies. The place selected for the meeting was Philadelphia, and the body which met there has ever since been called the First Continental Congress.

The First Continental Congress. The delegates met in Carpenter's Hall, Philadelphia, September 5th, 1774. Forty-

five persons were present, representing every colony but Georgia, where the governor prevented the choice of delegates. It was a great meeting of great Americans to consider great questions. Among the leading spirits were : Patrick Henry, Richard Henry Lee and George Washington, of Virginia ; Samuel Adams and John Adams, of Massachusetts ; John Dickinson, of Pennsylvania ; Roger Sherman, of Connecticut ; and the Rutledges, of South Carolina. The Congress continued in session until October 26th. It indorsed the conduct of the people of Boston, and exhorted them to stand firm. It sent an address to the people of the colonies, urging them to unite in support of the cause of Massachusetts, and formed an association agreeing not to use or import any British goods or products until the liberties of the colonies were secured. It sent an address to the Canadians, one to the people of Great Britain, and a petition to the King, asking for a "redress of grievances." It issued a remarkable paper known as the "Declaration of Resolves," which the colonists accepted as an expression of ideals wished for and hopes to be attained.

Declaration of Rights.* Among other things the Congress asserted that the colonists had—

1. The right to life, liberty, and property.
2. That they were entitled to the rights of Englishmen and all other rights promised in the colonial charters.
3. That they alone had the right to tax themselves.
4. That they had the right peaceably to assemble and petition the King and Parliament for a redress of grievances.
5. That the keeping of a standing army in the colonies in time of peace was against all law.

These rights, they declared, were violated by the several acts which Parliament had passed. Only by the repeal of these could harmony between Great Britain and the colonies be restored. If England should attempt to execute the late laws against Massachusetts by force, then, said the Continental Congress, "In such a case all America ought to support them

* The great William Pitt said of the document : "The histories of Greece and Rome give us nothing equal to it."

[Massachusetts] in their opposition." This could mean but one thing—war. Before Congress adjourned it provided for a meeting of another Congress, May 10th, 1775, to receive the King's answer to the petition.

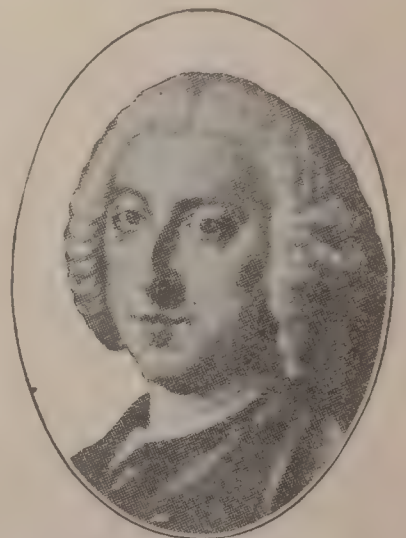
Preparations for War. Governor Gage found it no easy task to enforce the laws and punish the rebellious colonists. After calling the Massachusetts legislature to assemble at Salem in October (1774), he postponed it on account of the angry tone of the people. But the legislature met without the governor's consent, and organized a new government, with John Hancock at its head. A committee of safety was appointed, which prepared for possible war. The patriots began to collect arms, to drill the militia, and select officers. Massachusetts called for an army of 12,000 men, called "minute-men," who were to be ready at a moment's notice to march to any point of danger. In the mean time many of the King's judges, sheriffs and custom-house officers were forced by mobs to resign and close their offices, temporarily suspending the operation of law. Royalists were driven from their estates and took refuge with the British army.

Different Views in England and America. The people neither in England nor in America were wholly united. Parliament had a large majority favoring radical measures of King George. But some of the greatest statesmen, like Pitt, Burke, and Fox,



THE MINUTE-MAN.

After a statue by Daniel French, on the site of the battle of Concord.



WILLIAM PITT, A FRIEND OF THE COLONIES.

were favorable to the Colonies. In America the people were divided. The majority opposed the acts of England. They were called "patriots." Not a small number sided with the King and Parliament. They were called "loyalists," or "Tories."

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What was the English colonial policy? What were the Navigation Acts? What were Writs of Assistance? The Royal Governors? The colonists? What was the colonial policy of George III.? What is meant by "taxation without representation"? What was the Stamp Act? Tell of the opposition to it. Who were the Sons of Liberty? What was the Non-Importation Agreement? What were the Virginia Resolutions? What is said of the Stamp Act Congress? What action did Parliament take? What were the Townshend Acts? How did the colonies resist? What was the cause of the Boston Massacre? What was the cause of the Boston Tea Party? What were the Intolerable Acts? Give them. Tell of the first Continental Congress. What was the Declaration of Rights? Who were the minute-men? Who were the Tories?

Tell something of the following named persons, place, and dates: Patrick Henry, James Otis, Samuel Adams, John Hancock, George III., Charles Townshend; Faneuil Hall; 1765, 1774.

Write an outline of the causes of the Revolutionary War.

CHAPTER XII.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

EARLY EVENTS.

Lexington and Concord, April 19, 1775. At Concord, some twenty miles from Boston, the patriots had collected a quantity of military stores. General Gage had been directed to seize the stores and arrest John Hancock and Samuel Adams. London papers boasted that the heads of these two prominent "rebels" would soon be seen in the city. Gage sent a force of 800 men to destroy the stores at Concord, and on the way to arrest Hancock and Adams, who were at Lexington. The British troops left Boston secretly about midnight, April 18, 1775. But the patriots were on the watch. A sentinel in the tower of the Old North Church, in Boston, with signal lanterns flashed the news to watchful couriers in Charlestown that the British had started. The messengers, among them Paul Revere,



PAUL REVERE'S RIDE.

whose name has been preserved by Longfellow's poem, "Paul Revere's Ride,"* galloped through country and town, spreading the alarm. The British arrived at Lexington at dawn on the morning of the 19th, where a number of minute-men confronted them. "Disperse, you rebels!" was the shrill cry of Major Pitcairn, the British officer, but the patriots did not obey. The British fired into the crowd, killing eight and wounding ten. The rest retreated. Adams and Hancock escaped. The patriots went to Concord, destroyed the stores, set fire to the court-house, and started back to Boston. News of these thrilling events aroused the whole country. The British had given the challenge of war, and the patriots hastened to accept it. Bodies of minute-men flocked to the scene, and opened fire on the retreating foe. The British march to Lexington and Concord was a holiday jaunt. That from Lexington was a flight for life. From farmhouse and hedge, from bush and rock, tree and fence, poured the deadly fire of the American yeomen. Lord Percy came to Lexington with a thousand men as reinforcements from Boston, but he could not stay the fighting spirit of the patriots, who bore down on every side and drove the British to Boston, with a loss of nearly 300 dead and wounded. All night long the minute-men continued to pour in from every quarter. The next morning found the "Red-Coats"† shut up in Boston by bands of Yankee patriots.

Ethan Allen and Ticonderoga. Ethan Allen with a company of Green Mountain Boys, accompanied by Benedict Arnold, surprised the British garrison at Ticonderoga, May 10, 1775. They gained entrance to the fort unobserved and captured it without the loss of a single man. Delaplace, the commander, was yet in bed. A knock at the door and a summons to surrender were his first warnings. Amazed and dazed, with trousers in hand, he said to Allen, "Surrender to whom and by whose authority?" "To me, Ethan Allen," he

* Paul Revere and William Dawes, another messenger, were captured a few miles beyond Lexington and taken back to Boston as prisoners, but Dr. Samuel Prescott carried the news to Concord.

† The British soldiers were called "Red-Coats" because they wore red uniforms.

is said to have replied, "in the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress!"

Crown Point was captured a few days later by a band of patriots under Seth Warner.



THE SPIRIT OF '76, OR THREE GENERATIONS, (son, father, and grandfather.)

Note the expression of grim determination on the face of the old man, the gladness of the father, and the confidence of the boy. See the broken cannon-wheel, and the wounded soldier, unable to rise, but with strength to wave encouragement to his comrades.

The Second Continental Congress. The Second Continental Congress* met May 10, 1775, the very day that Ticonderoga surrendered. The Congress was called to hear the answer from the King to the petitions of the First Continental Congress. The King sent no answer to Congress, but armies instead, to subdue the colonists. The First Continental

* This Congress was called "Continental" because it represented the whole English group of colonies. Great Britain is an island. Afterward the American soldiers were sometimes called "Continental."

Congress debated, petitioned, and issued a Declaration of Rights. The Second Continental Congress was a Congress of action. It became the general ruling body, the responsible head of the colonies. It set to work with an energy seldom equalled by any legislative body, to manage the war and to direct the general affairs of the colonies.

Excepting for short intermissions, it remained in session at various places, until near the close of the war, 1781. The chief things accomplished in the early session at Philadelphia were :

1. It selected one of its number, George Washington,* for Commander-in-chief of the army.

2. It issued bills of credit (paper money).

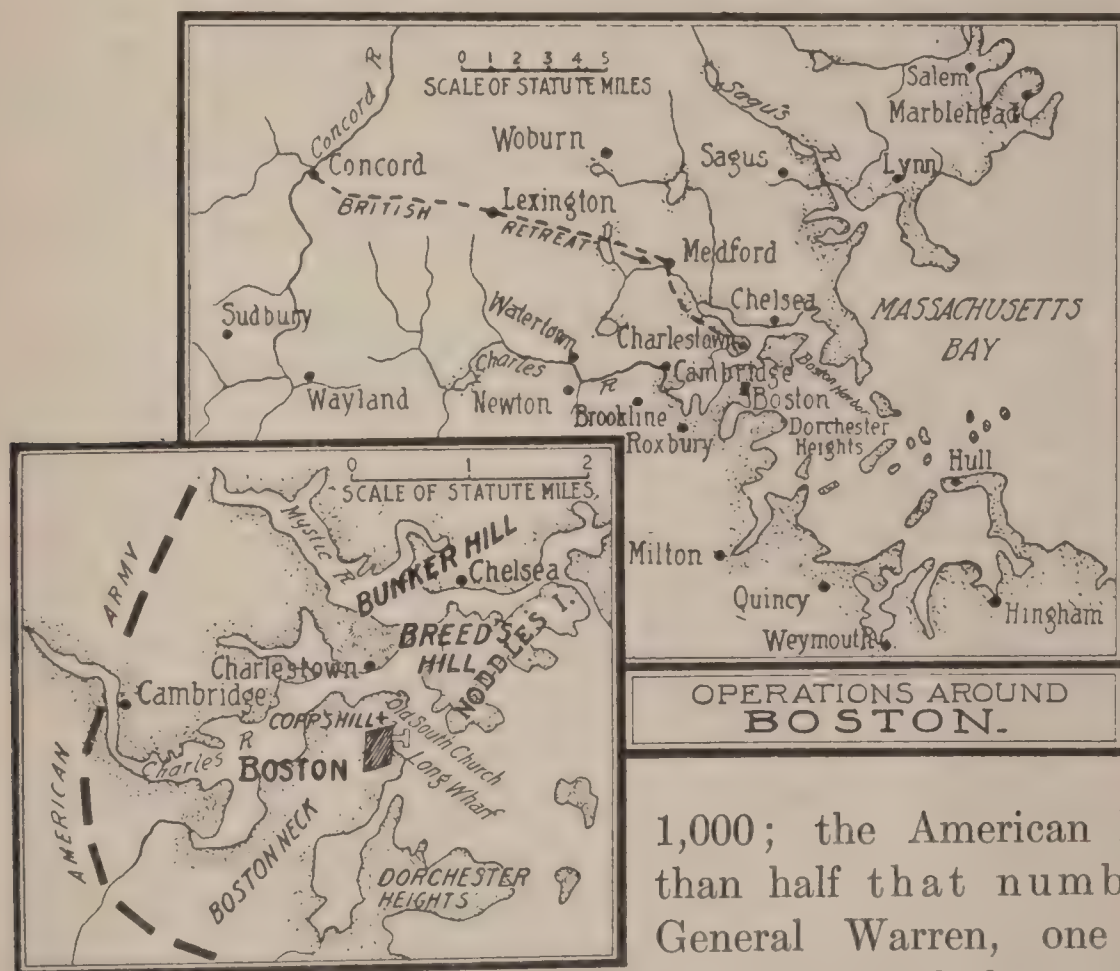
3. It created a postoffice department with Benjamin Franklin at the head.

4. Still professing loyalty to the mother country, it sent a last petition to the King and issued addresses to the people of Great Britain, Ireland, and Canada.

Battle of Bunker Hill, June 17, 1775. The second battle of the American Revolution was fought before Washington took command of the army. Patriots, learning of the British plans, sent a force of 1500 men under Colonel Prescott, on the night of June 16th, to take possession of Bunker Hill. By mistake or design, Prescott passed Bunker Hill and began to fortify Breed's Hill, nearer to Boston. All night long the Americans toiled, throwing up breastworks. Great was the surprise of the British next morning to see the strong hill already occupied. All that forenoon the British cannonaded the hill from Boston and from the war-ships. But in the afternoon 3,000 veteran British troops under General Howe crossed from Boston to drive the Americans out. Expecting the Americans to run, the British troops advanced. Prescott's orders were, "Don't fire till you see the whites of their eyes." They were obeyed. When the enemy were within fifty yards, a terrific volley from

* Washington served without pay. His salary was fixed at \$500 a month. In accepting the command Washington said he did not wish to make any profit out of the position, but would ask Congress to pay only his expenses.

the Americans thinned their ranks. The British retreated, re-formed, and again advanced, but again were driven back with heavy loss. A third attempt ended in success. The Continentals ran out of powder and were without bayonets. For a time they defended themselves with the butt end of their guns, but finally left the peninsula. The British loss was over



BOSTON AND VICINITY.

1,000; the American less than half that number. General Warren, one of the bravest of the patriot leaders, and Major Pit-

cairn, who began the battle of Lexington, were both killed. The battle had the moral effect of a victory for the Americans. The bravery of the patriots forever silenced the taunts and slurs so freely used by the British about the valor of Americans, and dispelled all doubt about the ability of the "minute-men" to meet the British regulars. It built up the hope and confidence of the Americans.

Washington in Command. Washington reached Cambridge, and under the shade of a great elm took command of the army July 3d. The soldiers were poorly armed and with-

out discipline. But Lexington and Bunker Hill showed that they could fight. The want of ammunition was a serious drawback, but this was gradually supplied. New York cast a number of cannon. General Knox brought forty heavy guns on sleds through the forests from Ticonderoga. Manufactories of arms and gunpowder were set up in the colonies. For immediate use the patriots purchased powder from Ireland and the Bahama Islands. A considerable quantity was seized from British vessels before their crews knew that American privateers were on the seas. Washington spent the winter drilling, disciplining and equipping the troops, and in getting ready to fight.

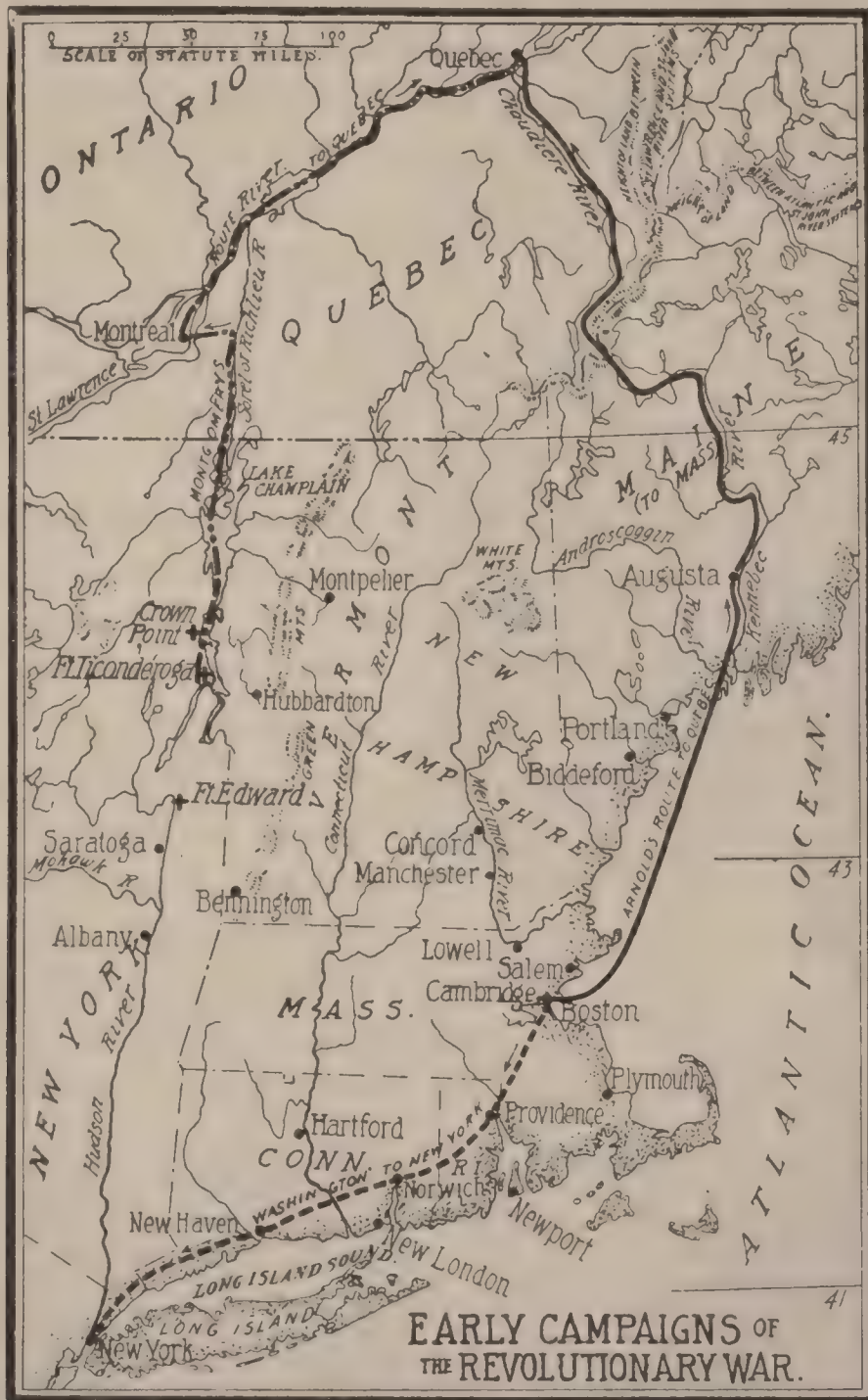
One of the troubles of General Howe, who succeeded General Gage, was the difficulty of getting food for his army.

Invasion of Canada. Congress feared that the British in Canada under Sir Guy Carleton would invade New York. To prevent this, two expeditions were sent into Canada to capture Montreal and Quebec; the first, under command of Montgomery, set out from Ticonderoga. Near the St. Lawrence he defeated Carleton, captured Montreal in November, and in December laid siege to Quebec. The second, under Benedict Arnold, went by boat from Newburyport to Maine. They ascended the Kennebec river, passing through dense forests over the divide in a toilsome and difficult journey. After six weeks, with his weary, ragged, half-starved army, now greatly diminished in number, he reached Quebec. Montgomery and Arnold joined their small forces and assaulted the city; but the attack ended in failure, Montgomery being killed and Arnold wounded. In the spring the American troops retreated from Canada.

Capture of Boston. On the night of March 4th, 1776, while a cannonade held the attention of the British, the Americans secretly occupied Dorchester Heights (now South Boston). With energy and dispatch they placed a line of cannons overlooking the city and harbor. Boston then lay at the mercy of Washington. Howe had been outgeneraled.

An attempt to take the hill would end in disaster, so he con-

cluded to leave the city. On the 17th of March he sailed with his army for Halifax, carrying with him 1,500 Tories. Washington took possession of Boston, but a few days later marched



ARNOLD'S AND MONTGOMERY'S ROUTES TO QUEBEC AND WASHINGTON'S
ROUTE TO NEW YORK.

to New York City, which, he believed, would be attacked next by the British.

Declaration of Independence, July 4th, 1776. The attitude of England had produced a great change of sentiment

in America. At first the colonists wanted a redress of grievances. They next began to fight for their rights as Englishmen. But when the King called them "rebels" and sent troops to put down the "rebellion," sentiment grew rapidly for independence. A pamphlet called "Common Sense," written by Thomas Paine, strongly advocated separation from England. It was read by tens of thousands, and expressed

what most of the people really felt. Virginia instructed her delegates in Congress to vote for independence. On June 7th Richard Henry Lee of Virginia offered a resolution that became famous: "*Resolved*, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and



INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA.

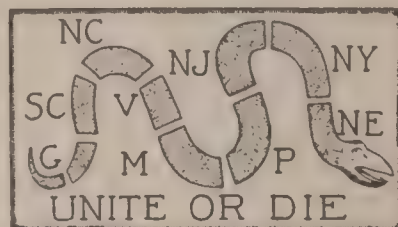
the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." John Adams of Massachusetts seconded the resolution. No



SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, 1776.

vote was taken until July 2, but a committee of five was appointed June 11th to draw a formal Declaration of Independence.

The members of the committee were Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Roger Sherman, Benjamin Franklin, and Robert R. Livingston. To Jefferson, the chairman, fell the duty of writing the Declaration. No one was better fitted for the task. Of him it was said: "He could calculate an eclipse, survey an estate, tie an artery, plan an edifice, try a cause, break a horse, dance à minuet, and play a violin." He was a master in the use of English, and was deeply learned in several languages.



Franklin's device to show the need of union. "Unite or Die," was his plea. The head of the snake represents New England; the other colonies are marked with initials.

As Washington is sometimes called the sword, so Jefferson may be called the pen of the Revolution; for with but few changes the Declaration of Independence, as drafted by him, was adopted by the Continental Congress, July 4th, 1776. (Read it, p. 00.) John Hancock, President of the Congress, signed the Declaration in the plain bold hand which, as he said, "The King of England could read without his spectacles."

The "Liberty Bell" in the Old State House in Philadelphia rang out the joyous tidings to the people. It, in truth, was sounding the message which had been cast upon its side twenty-four years before: "Proclaim liberty throughout the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof." Some days later, August 2, the rest of the members of Congress signed the Declaration. Hancock remarked, "We must all hang together." "Yes," said Franklin, "we must all hang together or we shall all hang separately." By the Declaration of Independence the United Colonies became the United States, but it took five more years of war to convince the King and Parliament of this fact.



LIBERTY BELL.

"Proclaim liberty throughout the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof."

WASHINGTON'S CAMPAIGNS IN NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY.

Washington in New York. After reaching New York, Washington built Forts Lee and Washington above the city, on opposite banks of the Hudson, and fortified Brooklyn Heights in the western part of Long Island.

He had judged correctly as to the British plans; for a fleet bearing Howe's army arrived at Staten Island, July 2, where it was joined by another fleet and force from England under his brother, Admiral Howe. These, together with Hessian* soldiers that soon followed, increased the British army to 30,000. To oppose these Washington had about 17,000, with probably a third of them on Long Island under the command of Israel Putnam.

The great object of the British was to seize New York and the country along the Hudson, and to open up a line of communication with Canada, thus separating New England, the head and front of the rebellion, from the rest of the colonies. It was supposed that this could be accomplished quite easily, for New York City, more than any other locality, was a center for Tories. The Hudson, Lake Champlain and the St. Lawrence (as there were then no railroads) offered a good route over which to carry supplies. With New York subdued, they then hoped to fall upon Massachusetts and crush out the rebellion.

Battle of Long Island and Capture of New York. Howe landed an army on Long Island more than twice as large as the American force, and on August 27th totally defeated Putnam's troops and drove them behind their intrenchments. The Americans were hemmed in on every side. A mile of sea separated them from the rest of Washington's troops. A superior army opposed them on one side and a great fleet on the other. It seemed that the whole force would be compelled to surrender in a short time. But the energy and skill of Washington saved the army. Leaving the camp-fires still burning, under cover

* Not enough English volunteered to carry on the war, so King George hired German troops from the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel (hence the name Hessian) and others, amounting in all to about 30,000 during the war.

of a dense fog and a dark night Washington crossed to New York, and then marched north along the Hudson.* When Howe reached out in the morning to capture the "nest of rebels," they were gone. The British took possession of Long Island and New York City. Howe issued a proclamation promising pardon to all who would lay down their arms, but the colonists wanted no pardon at the sacrifice of their rights.

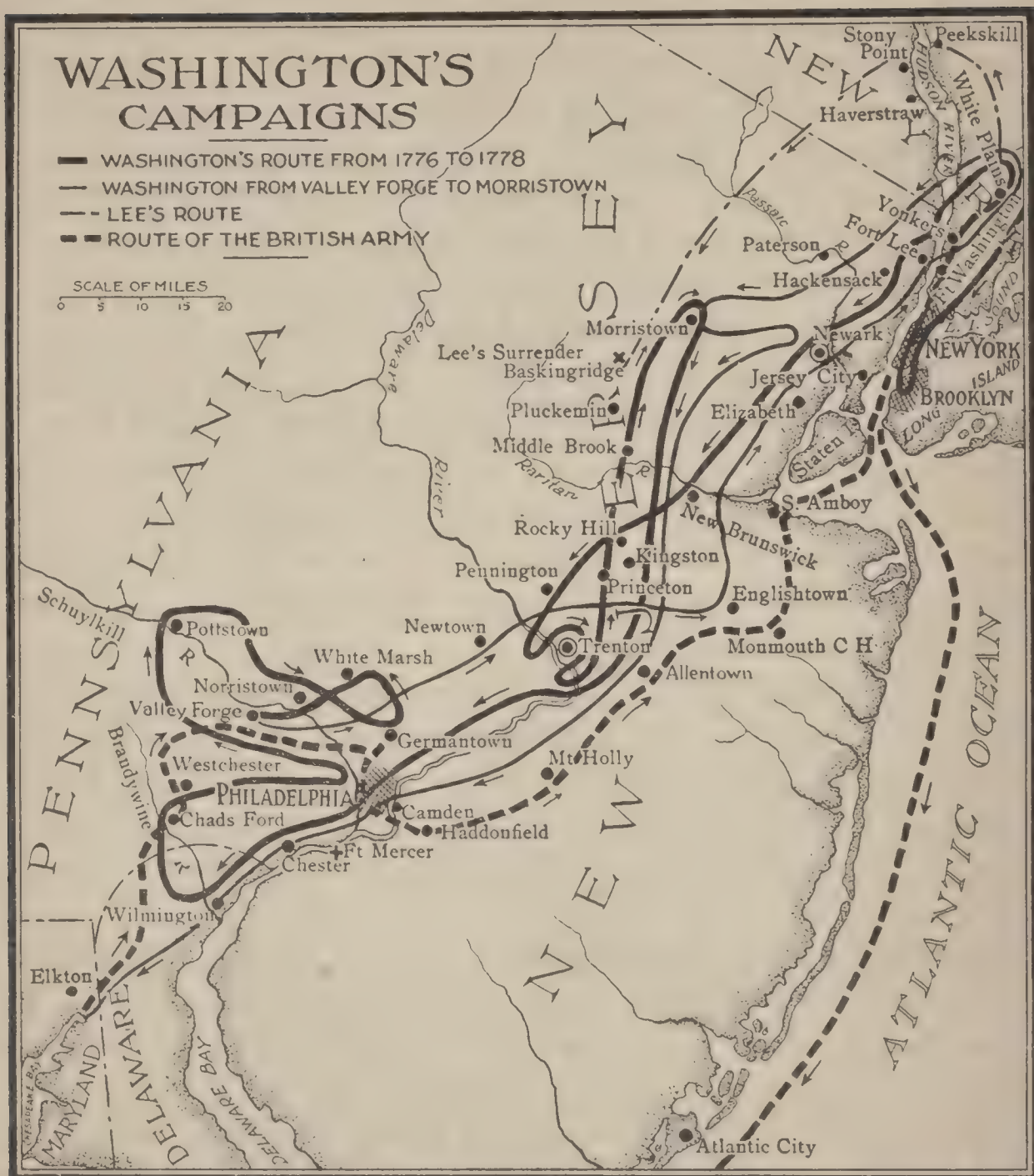
Campaign Along the Hudson.† American forces were stationed at points along the Hudson at Fort Lee, Fort Washington, West Point, and North Castle, while Washington moved on the east side of the river. The British under Cornwallis followed. Fort Lee was abandoned. Learning the plans of Fort Washington from a deserter, Cornwallis succeeded in taking the fort (Nov. 12, 1776), with 3,000 prisoners. The loss of these forts was a terrible blow.

After Washington left New York some irresponsible parties set fire to the city, and a large part was burned. A part of Washington's army was overtaken and defeated at White Plains. He was compelled to retreat. In what direction would he go? Naturally toward Philadelphia, at that time the capital of the colonies.

Retreat Across New Jersey. The retreat of Washington's army across New Jersey hardly has a parallel in history. It was a game of "hide-and-seek" between a ragged, hungry, unpaid and poorly armed band of patriots on the one hand and a large army of well-drilled and finely equipped European troops on the other. Washington could not meet in regular battle five times his own number. He acted on the principle that "he who fights and runs away may live to fight another day." More than once the van of Cornwallis's army overtook the rear of Washington's army as his men lingered to burn bridges or obstruct the British march. In vain did Washing-

* The patriot army carried away the church-bells from the city to have them molded into cannon-balls.

† During the New York campaign, Washington wanted certain information concerning the movements of the British. Nathan Hale volunteered to get it. On his return trip he was captured by the British, tried and convicted as a spy, and sentenced to be hanged. When going to his death he said, "I regret that I have but one life to give to my country."



Trace Washington's line of march from Brooklyn to White Plains; across New Jersey into Pennsylvania; to Trenton and back to Pennsylvania; to Princeton and Morristown; to Philadelphia, Brandywine, and Valley Forge; across New Jersey to Monmouth, White Plains, and Morristown; to proposed attack on New York; to Philadelphia and Elkton for Yorktown. Tell a connected story of his plans, purposes, marches, battles, defeats, and victories.

ton send messengers to Charles Lee, who was at North Castle with 7,000 men, to join him. Only the extraordinary skill and remarkable energy of the great leader saved the army.

CAPTURE OF LEE. Lee disobeyed. By withholding his own forces he hoped to bring failure to Washington and thus succeed him. He finally crossed the Hudson (Dec. 2, 1776) and moved

leisurely across New Jersey. While stopping over-night at a small inn at Basking Ridge, outside the army lines, he was captured by a party of British dragoons. Sullivan, who was next in command to Lee, hurried the troops off to join Washington, who had reached the Delaware in safety; but his army was reduced to 3,000 men. It was in danger of disbanding. The patriotic cause seemed lost. British generals were preparing to return to England. It was a period of gloom and distress, but soon to be changed by the military skill of Washington into a season of rejoicing. On reaching the Delaware at Trenton, Washington seized every boat, far and wide, up and down the river, and crossed into Pennsylvania, cutting off the British pursuit. Cornwallis distributed his troops in several towns in New Jersey and waited with his advance at Trenton for the river to freeze so he could again take up the chase.



WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.

Battle of Trenton, Dec. 26, 1776. Reinforced by Lee's troops, Washington planned a surprise for the British before they would recover from their Christmas festivities. On Christmas night, amid drifting ice, he crossed the Delaware with 2,400 picked men, marched nine miles in a blinding snow-storm, and surprised and captured a thousand Hessians. His

own loss was two killed and two wounded. Cornwallis hurried a large force to the scene, but Washington with his prisoners was again safe across the river.

Battle of Princeton, Jan. 3, 1777. A few days later Washington again crossed the Delaware into New Jersey. With a strong force Cornwallis advanced to give battle. Only a small creek divided the two armies on the night of Jan. 2. "At last," said Cornwallis, "we have run down the old fox and we will bag him in the morning." But that night, leaving his camp-fires burning, Washington made a forced march to Princeton, and there fell upon and defeated the troops Cornwallis had left to guard his line of defense. It has been said that the booming of the cannon at Princeton first announced to Cornwallis the fact that Washington had slipped away.

These brilliant victories produced a wonderful effect. Joy, hope and confidence were restored, money was raised and more troops enlisted.

After the battle of Princeton Washington went into winter quarters among the hills around Morristown, while the British retired to New Brunswick and Amboy.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What caused the Battles of Concord and Lexington? Tell of the Second Continental Congress. Tell of the Battle of Bunker Hill and its effects. What resulted from the Canada campaign? Tell of the Declaration of Independence. What were its effects upon the colonies? Give an account of Washington's campaign around New York and in New Jersey. Where did Washington go into camp in 1776? What impression did this campaign make?

Tell something of the following named persons, places, and dates: Paul Revere, Ethan Allen, John Hancock, George Washington, Israel Putnam, Hessians, Nathan Hale, Charles Lee; Bunker Hill, Québec, Independence Hall, Trenton; May 10, 1775, July 4, 1776.

CHAPTER XIII.

CAMPAIGNS IN THE NORTH.

General Plans. In the summer of 1777 the British began a second attempt to separate New England from the rest of the colonies by an invasion of New York. The movement was to be made by way of Canada, and the plan was three-fold in character.

1. The main army under Burgoyne, who had succeeded Carleton, was to invade New York from Canada by way of Lake Champlain and the Hudson.

2. A second army under St. Leger was to ascend the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario to Oswego, then move across the state, down the Mohawk valley, stirring up the powerful Indian tribes on the way.

3. A third expedition was to ascend the Hudson from New York.

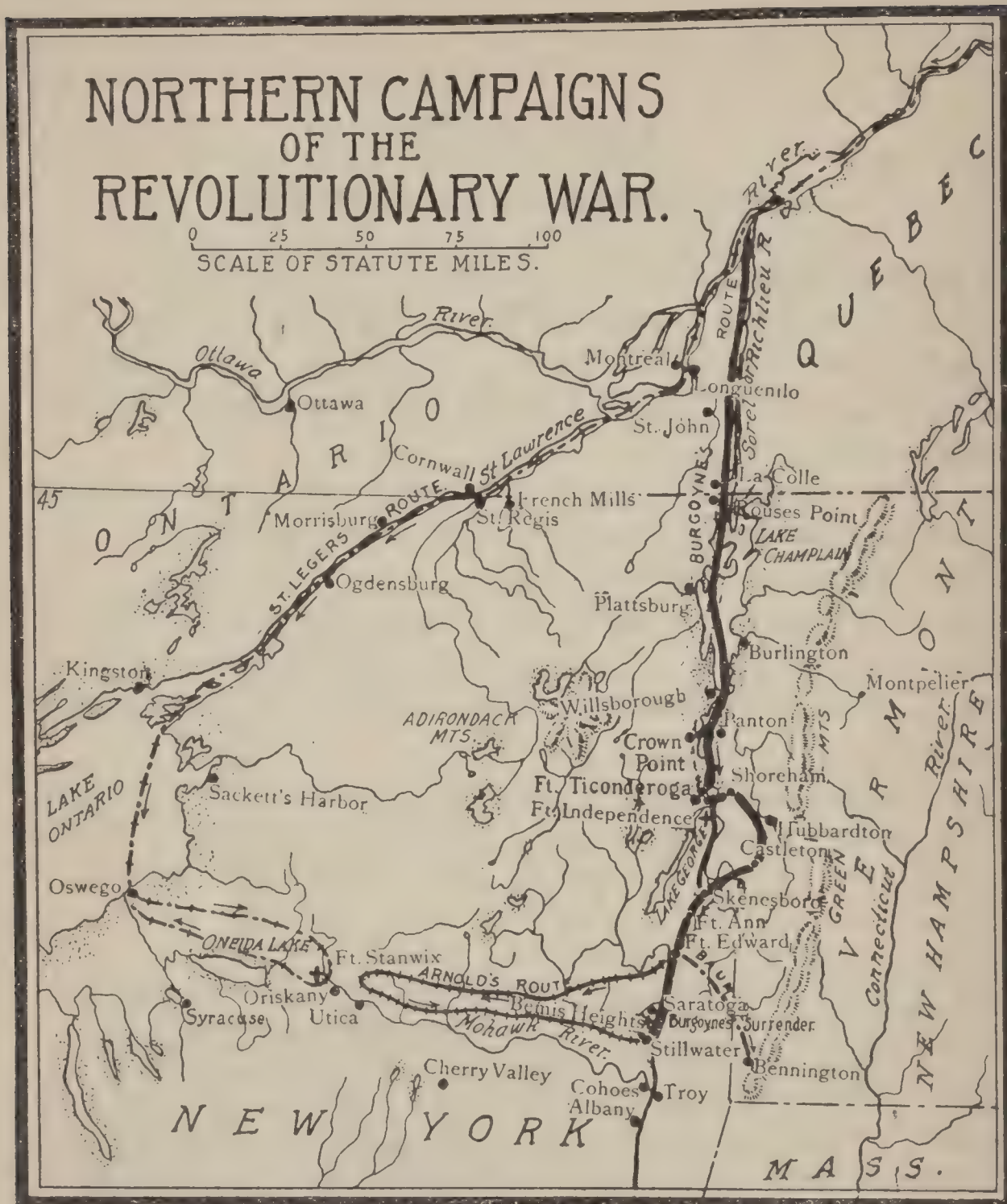
All were to unite at Albany. A study of the map will show that these plans were simple and sufficiently complete, if carried out, to bring the state of New York into line for the British. But, "The best-laid schemes o' mice and men gang aft agley." So it was with the British.

The end left "naught but grief and pain for promised joy."

Burgoyne's Invasion of New York. With a fine army of 8,000 picked men General John Burgoyne left Canada, receiving many Indian recruits as he ascended Lake Champlain. The American army under St. Clair hastily fled southward, abandoning Ticonderoga



BURGOYNE'S MARCH THROUGH NEW YORK.



and ninety-three cannon. At Skeenesboro the British fleet captured a large stock of stores and provisions which had been taken from Ticonderoga by boat. The rear of the retreating army was overtaken at Hubbardston, and severely punished, but it finally reached Ford Edward, where Schuyler held command. The entire American army did not now exceed 4,000 men. The cause seemed dark indeed to the colonists as they thought of the British, with their bloodthirsty Indian allies, overrunning the state. But the first feeling of panic soon gave

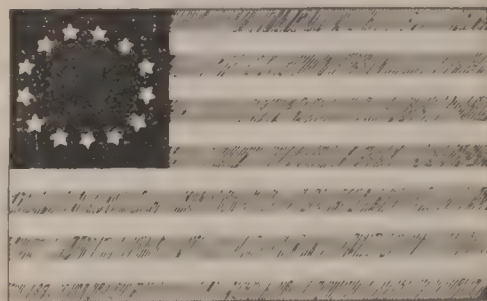
way to indignation and determined resistance. The militia of New York and New England flew to arms, and joined Schuyler's army. The progress of the British through the wilderness was hindered in every way. Schuyler's men destroyed bridges, felled trees across roads and in the line of march, obstructed fords, cut off the food supply, and in every way made life a burden to the invaders.

Baum and Colonel John Stark at Bennington. Burgoyne learned that the Americans had collected a supply of food at Bennington, a small town in southwestern Vermont. He sent Colonel Baum with 1,000 Hessians to capture the stores. Colonel Stark,* at the head of the state militia or Green Mountain Boys, as they are sometimes called, defeated and captured nearly the entire force (Aug. 15). The few who escaped rejoined Burgoyne. This brilliant victory reduced the British army in numbers, and greatly encouraged the patriots.

St. Leger's Expedition. From Oswego St. Leger advanced and laid siege to Fort Stanwix, now Fort Schuyler. General Herkimer gathered a body of state militia and marched to the relief of the fort. When near at hand he was ambushed (Aug. 6) and defeated, but the garrison from the fort sallied forth and beat back the British. It was here that the stars and stripes, a few weeks after its adoption by Congress (June 14, 1777), first floated over a battlefield. The flag was made of a piece of blue jacket, strips of a white shirt and of a red petticoat, and was flung to the breeze high above the ramparts. Underneath it were hung, upside down, five British flags captured from St. Leger.



FLAG USED BY GEN. WASHINGTON
AT CAMBRIDGE IN JANUARY, 1776.



FLAG ADOPTED BY CONGRESS JUNE
14, 1777.

* Tradition says that as the fight was about to begin, Stark, pointing to the British, said: "There are the British red-coats; we beat them today or Molly Stark's a widow tonight!"

General Schuyler sent three regiments up the Mohawk valley under Arnold to the relief of Fort Stanwix. Arnold sent a messenger ahead to announce that a very large American army was at hand. The British and Indians becoming alarmed, fled, leaving stores and baggage behind. Arnold returned to the Hudson in time to take part in the battle of Saratoga.

Surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga, Oct. 17, 1777.

Burgoyne* saw the dangers grow thick and fast about him. Baum's army had been destroyed and St. Leger's defeated. The Indian allies began to desert. Food became scarce. Reinforcements flocked to the Americans until they outnumbered the British. Lincoln came with 2,000 New England troops. Daniel Morgan of Virginia brought a rifle corps of 500 sharpshooters, and Arnold's regiments were on the way back from Stanwix. General Howe, who was to come up the Hudson, moved against Philadelphia, sending General Clinton up the river too late to reach Burgoyne. Advance and retreat were alike perilous.

Burgoyne made two desperate attempts to drive back the Americans, at Bemis Heights (September 19) and at Stillwater (October 7), but each time was defeated. He retired to Saratoga, where he surrendered, October 17, 1777, to General Gates, who by orders of Congress had succeeded General Schuyler a short time before. The credit of the victory was due largely to Morgan, Arnold, and Schuyler.

Results of the Surrender. So far as the results are concerned, Saratoga is called one of the decisive battles of the world. It brought hope and confidence to the colonists, doubt and despair to the British, and was the means of securing an alliance between America and France. The British plans were overturned and their fighting force reduced by 10,000 men. The King came forward with a proposal for peace, promising not to tax the colonies, to give them representation in Parliament, and to grant pardon to all; in fact, to grant everything except independence, if the colonists would lay down their arms.

* At the beginning of the campaign, Burgoyne boasted that he would eat Christmas dinner in Albany. He ate his dinner there before that day, but as a prisoner of war.

French Alliance, Feb. 6, 1778.* Soon after the Declaration of Independence was proclaimed, Benjamin Franklin was sent as a commissioner to get aid from France. All he could secure was secret help in the shape of war material and money loans. The surrender of Burgoyne made success seem possible, even certain, for America if France would give her aid. So the French King openly espoused the cause of the Colonies and made a treaty of alliance, 1778. He recognized the independence of the colonies, increased his loans to them, and prepared to send a fleet and an army to America. This, of course, meant war between France and England. By the terms of the alliance neither the United States nor France could without the consent of the other treat with England. Before peace was restored Spain and Holland were also at war with England.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Even before the French alliance, a number of Frenchmen came over to help the Americans in their struggle for independence. Chief among them was the Marquis de Lafayette, who served with distinction during the war. Among other foreigners who fought for the American cause were: Baron Steuben, a German officer who joined Washington's army at Valley Forge and proved of great value as a drill-master; Baron DeKalb, a Frenchman who gave valiant service in the southern campaign; and two Polish officers, Kosciusko and Count Pulaski, the former an engineer, the latter an officer at Brandywine, Charleston, and at Savannah, where he lost his life.



GENERAL LAFAYETTE.

* Early in 1776 Silas Deane was sent to France to secure supplies. Late in the year Congress appointed Benjamin Franklin, Silas Deane and Arthur Lee as commissioners to negotiate a treaty with France.

WASHINGTON'S CAMPAIGNS (continued).

Campaigns of Washington and Howe around Philadelphia.—**BATTLE OF BRANDYWINE.** No events of any importance took place in the spring of 1777 between the two armies as they lay in winter quarters not many miles apart. There were some threatening movements but no battles. The British efforts to take Philadelphia by marching across New Jersey had failed because Washington blocked the way. Howe formed a new plan. Leaving Clinton in command at New York to help Burgoyne, he himself took 16,000 men by sea,* ascended the Chesapeake Bay to Elkton and then set out on foot for Philadelphia. When Washington learned of Howe's movements, he started on a rapid march for Philadelphia. Passing through Philadelphia, Chester and Wilmington, he took a stand at Chad's Fort on Brandywine creek, to dispute the British advance. Here was fought the battle of Brandywine (September 11, 1777). Washington was defeated and retreated to Philadelphia, and later to Pottstown. Congress fled first to Lancaster, then to York, Pennsylvania. The British entered Philadelphia September 26.

BATTLE OF GERMANTOWN. October 4, 1777, while some of the British were making an attack on Forts Mifflin and Mercer, which guarded the Delaware river, Washington fell upon the British army at Germantown (now part of Philadelphia), but was repulsed. Washington, though defeated, kept annoying the British; so Howe sent to New York for more troops. It was the intention to send such troops as could be spared from the New York army to Burgoyne's relief, but instead they were now sent to Howe; thus Burgoyne was forced to wait until fresh troops could be brought from England, and they arrived too late to save him.

Valley Forge, 1777-1778. Washington went into winter quarters at Valley Forge, twenty miles northwest of Philadelphia. It was a winter of want and suffering. The men were

* As the fleet moved southward, signal-fires along the Jersey shore told of the progress of the fleet. The news was carried inland by messengers. The route by the Delaware river and bay would have been more direct, but the river was guarded by strong forts, so General Howe chose to go by way of the Chesapeake.

in rags. Their marches could be traced by trails of blood left on the snow from sore and shoeless feet. In a letter to Congress, Washington said that 2,998 men were unfit for duty because they were barefoot or otherwise naked. Often the soldiers went hungry. At one time there was no bread for three days. In three weeks of piercing cold, without fighting, they lost 2,000 men from hardships and exposure.

Yet amid all these sufferings, this band of patriots, oft defeated but still unbroken in spirit, hung together. Never did braver or truer men under a greater leader bear arms for a better cause.

The British at the same time were living in comfort, ease and plenty, in and around Philadelphia.

Conway Cabal. In the midst of these misfortunes some of the officers formed a plot to displace Washington and advance Gates to his command. The leader of this cabal* was Conway, hence the name, "Conway Cabal." When the plot was exposed there was such a wave of indignation among the people, that it failed of its purpose.

British Retreat and Battle of Monmouth. When the British learned of the French Alliance and that a French fleet and army were on their way to enter Delaware Bay to co-operate with Washington, they took to their heels. Sir Henry Clinton, who had succeeded Howe, set out on a forced march for New York. Washington followed. By rapid marches he overtook the British at Monmouth, June 28, 1778, and would no doubt have gained a splendid victory had it not been for the cowardice and treachery of an American General, Charles Lee.† At the moment when a wing of the British army could have been cut off, Lee disobeyed Washington's orders, and, when the British opened fire, ordered a retreat. When Washington arrived his soldiers faced about and put the British to flight.

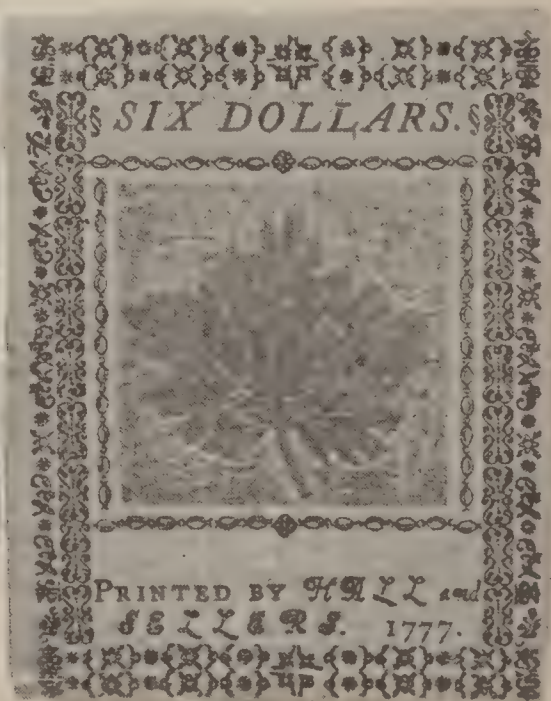
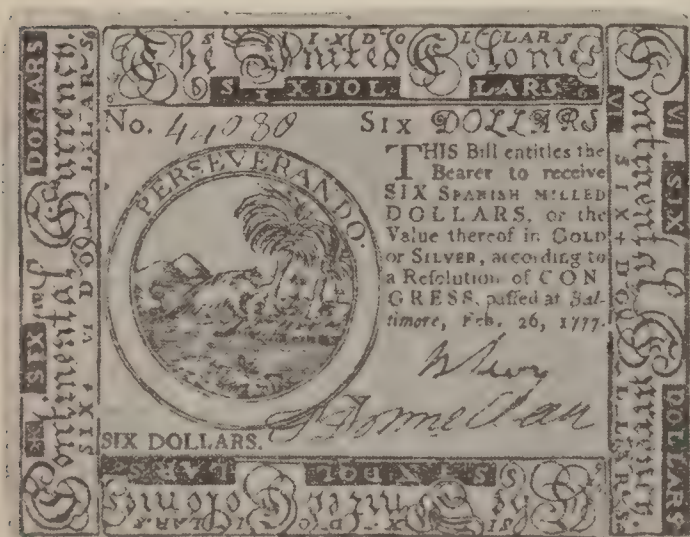
While in Philadelphia, the British officers were feasted and

* A "cabal" is a secret association of persons to promote their own interests by intrigue.

† General Lee was prisoner from December, 1776, to April, 1778. He was exchanged for General Prescott, a British officer. For his conduct at the battle of Monmouth Lee was sent to the rear, court-martialed, and later dismissed from service.

treated to a life of pleasure and gayety by those out of sympathy with the war. The day of reckoning came when Clinton withdrew from the city. No less than 3,000 loyalists, fearing to remain, went with him. Of those who remained a few were hanged and others banished. The main army of the British was now brought to New York. Washington stretched his lines from Morristown to White Plains. For two years the respective forces were in this position without a general battle, but each sent reinforcements at times to other fields where conflicts were raging.

Continental Paper Money. The hardships and difficulties were greatly increased because the new nation was without money and without the means of raising a sufficient amount to meet the expenses. It was practically forced to issue paper money. The first issue by Congress was in June, 1775, for \$2,000,000. During the war, it issued \$241,000,000.* In addition to this amount, the states printed nearly \$210,000,000. These notes, state and national, were only promises to pay. The states



CONTINENTAL MONEY, (front and back.)

had no specie (gold or silver) with which to redeem the notes. Fear that the colonies might fail in the war for independence, or that they could not redeem the notes even if successful, caused

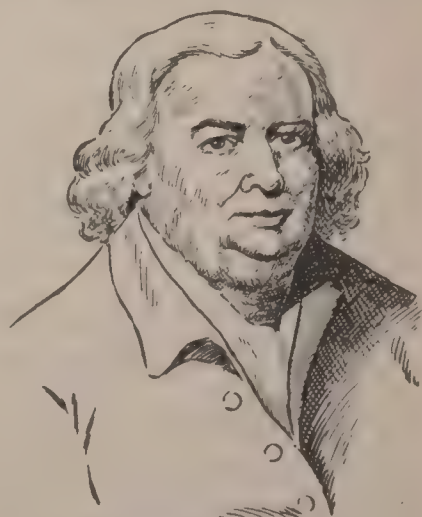
* November, 1779, Congress voted not to have more than \$200,000,000 of paper money in circulation. After this date, Congress issued no more currency.

the paper money to be worth less than face value. The British helped to depreciate the money by putting counterfeit notes in circulation. In 1780 a dollar in coin was worth \$40 in paper. The next year the rate was one to one hundred. From this circumstance the expression, "Not worth a continental," has come down to us from the Revolutionary days. So valueless had it become that in jest persons made use of it for papering barber-shops, for making sailors' clothes, and for other grotesque purposes.

The lack of money caused army officers to seize horses, wagons and supplies throughout the war, and give the owners certificates of value or notes of the government.

Lack of Money Brings not only Suffering, but Mutiny. Because of the want of money, the troops were ragged, hungry, and unpaid. One author says: "The severest trial of the Revolution, in fact, was not in the field, where there were shouts to excite and laurels to be won; but in the squalid wretchedness of ill-provided camps, where there was nothing to cheer and everything to endure. To suffer was the lot of the Revolutionary soldier." Several times the soldiers broke out in open revolt. In 1781, 1,000 men started from Princeton for Philadelphia to demand clothing and back pay. General Clinton sent messengers to invite them to join the British. The soldiers themselves hung several of these agents who tried to get them to abandon their flag. Happily, order was restored. Lafayette said of the soldiers: "Human patience has its limits. No European army would suffer the tenth part the Americans suffer. It takes citizens to endure hunger, nakedness, toil, and want of pay, which is the condition of our soldiers, the hardest and most patient that are to be found in the world."

Robert Morris, a wealthy Philadelphia merchant, became Superintendent of Finances in 1781. Some relief was found through his wise and



ROBERT MORRIS.

able management in this period of distress. When no other funds were available, he used his own to support the credit of the nation. By his efforts the Bank of North America was established (1781), and became an aid in securing loans and in carrying on the finances of the nation.

WAR ON THE WESTERN BORDER, INDIAN MASSACRES, NAVAL AND OTHER EVENTS.

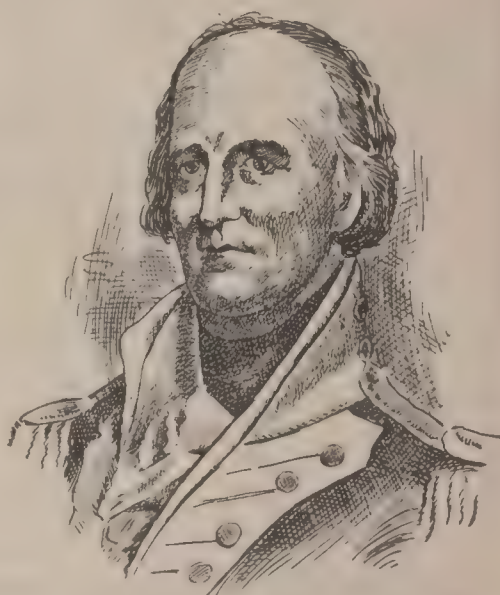
Newport, August, 1778. The French fleet followed the British to New York, but their largest ships could not pass over the bar to enter the harbor, so a movement was planned to drive the British from Newport, Rhode Island, by the combined efforts of the fleet and a land force under Sullivan. The English fleet went to protect Newport. Before a battle occurred, however, a great storm dispersed the rival fleets, greatly injuring some of the French ships. D'Estaing, the French admiral, took his fleet to Boston for repairs, and later went to the West Indies to protect French interests there, and Sullivan was obliged to retreat.

Indian Massacres in Wyoming and Cherry Valleys. Meanwhile, the Tories and Indians of central and western New York took the war-path, burning property and murdering patriots. In the summer of 1778 a large force, led by John Butler, marched into the beautiful Wyoming valley in northeastern Pennsylvania and committed frightful massacres. The same year Cherry Valley, New York, suffered a like fate at the hands of Tories and Indians, led by Joseph Brant. The next year General Sullivan with an army of 5,000 was sent by Washington to put an end to these bloody raids. Near where Elmira, New York, now stands he administered a crushing defeat to the allied bands of Indians and Tories. He pursued the Indians to their haunts, burned some forty of their villages, killed many, and put the survivors to flight.

War in Kentucky and Tennessee. While these stirring events were occurring in the colonies, pioneers went into the territory west of the mountains to win it for the American cause. Among these was Daniel Boone, a noted frontiersman, who in

1775, with other pioneers, moved into this region. The next year, when the legislature of Virginia created the county of Kentucky, these pioneers waged successful war against the Indian allies of the British. John Sevier and James Robertson were prominent in defeating the Cherokee Indians in the territory which later became Tennessee.

George Rogers Clark. But more noted were the services of George Rogers Clark, a Virginian, who had settled in Kentucky. Acting under the authority of Patrick Henry, governor of Virginia, he performed a great service to the nation in winning the country north of the Ohio river. Clark secretly raised an army of volunteers and marched against the British posts north of the Ohio. Descending that river from Pittsburg to the mouth of the Cumberland, he marched across the country, taking possession of the towns and forts, and made a friendly call on the Spaniards at St. Louis. He then marched to Vincennes, where he met and defeated General Hamilton, the British commandant, who had come from Detroit with 500 men to aid in the defense of Vincennes. The British power was thus completely broken south of the lakes. These victories gave the colonies at the end of the war a claim to the territory as far west as the Mississippi.



GEORGE ROGERS CLARK.

Capture of Savannah, 1778. In the latter part of 1778 the British sent an army away from the main field of the war to invade the thinly settled state of Georgia. Colonel Campbell sailed from New York, and General Prevost marched from Florida, each with an army. They captured Savannah in December. Prevost advanced, and took Augusta. By the end of 1779, Georgia was reduced to submission and a royal governor again placed in charge of the colony.

ATTEMPT TO RECAPTURE SAVANNAH. Count D'Estaing, com-



ROUTE OF GEORGE ROGERS CLARK.

This expedition had much to do with securing the Mississippi river for the western boundary of the United States at the close of the Revolutionary War.

manding the French fleet, and General Lincoln, in command of the American troops, tried to recapture Savannah (1779). After a siege of three weeks they foolishly assaulted the works, only to meet defeat with heavy losses, as the British were strongly fortified. Among the dead were Count Pulaski and D'Estaing himself.

Stony Point and Paulus Hook. To make the Hudson more secure, Washington had built two forts above West Point, one at Stony Point and the other at Verplanck's Point. The British seized Stony Point before it was completed. Washington sent General "Mad Anthony" Wayne to recapture it. At midnight, July 15, 1779, 1,200 picked men, carrying empty guns, climbed the steep sides of the precipice, and with fixed bayonets in a brilliant charge captured the fort and 500 prisoners.

Another daring exploit was achieved by Harry Lee, popularly

called "Light Horse Harry," when he stormed and captured Paulus Hook (1779), a fort on the Jersey side opposite New York, from which the British had been making raids among the Jersey farmers.

During the same year Clinton had sent a marauding expedition to plunder and ravage the farms and towns of Connecticut, expecting to draw Washington from New York ; but news of the British disaster at Stony Point put an end to this movement.

Thus we see that Washington and Clinton were playing the war game in more than one way.

Arnold's Treason. In the midst of these conflicts, Benedict Arnold, one of the bravest and ablest of the American generals, who had distinguished himself at Quebec and Saratoga and gave promise of still greater service to the nation, was placed in command at Philadelphia (1778), after the British went to New York. Here he married the daughter of a prominent Tory and lived beyond his means. He chose methods to raise money which were not becoming his office. He was tried by court-martial and sentenced to be reprimanded, which Washington did in a mild manner. Smarting under this deserved rebuke and nursing an ignoble revenge, Arnold conceived the traitorous design of betraying his country. At his own request, Washington, who had every confidence in him, placed him in command at West Point (1780), a stronghold on the Hudson. Here he resumed a correspondence with the British, which had previously been started, offering to surrender West Point. Major André, Adjutant-General of the British army, met Arnold near Stony Point to arrange the terms of surrender. On his way back, André was arrested by three Americans who were watching for British cattle-thieves. In his stockings they found papers in Arnold's handwriting. News of the arrest came to Arnold in time to enable him to reach the British army. From the British he received a large sum of money, and served as an officer in their army to the end of the war, fighting his own countrymen. At the close he took refuge in England, and ended his days in sorrow and remorse. André was hung as a spy.

The Navy in the Revolution. Late in 1775 Congress ordered that thirteen war vessels be built. Before these were finished, several merchant vessels were fitted up and sailed from Philadelphia to prey on British commerce in the West Indies. Each of the seacoast states fitted out one or more fighting-ships. Soon after the Declaration of Independence Congress issued "letters of marque and reprisal," which gave the right to private persons to fit out ships to seize the enemy's vessels, and share with the government the fruits of such victories. In this way much damage was done to British commerce. The American navy could in no way cope with the formidable British fleets, but could only prey on unguarded merchantmen or detached cruisers. Nearly all of the American vessels were captured or destroyed before the close of the war, but the French fleets became a powerful factor in winning independence.

PAUL JONES. The most brilliant of all victories on the sea was achieved by Paul Jones. In command of the little *Ranger* (1778) he made one of the most remarkable cruises in naval history, darting in and out of the coast of the British Isles, setting fire to shipping, destroying four British vessels, capturing an armed cruiser, and returning in safety to France.



PAUL JONES.

In 1779, by the aid of Franklin, commissioner to France, Jones obtained a fleet of five ships in France and set out to prey on British vessels. His flag-ship was named *Bon Homme Richard* (the good

man Richard), in honor of Franklin's "Poor Richard's Almanac." He captured or destroyed ship after ship. When near Flamboro Head he met a fleet of British merchantmen at night, convoyed by the frigate *Serapis*, greatly superior to the *Richard*. A terrific fight took place. Both ships were set on fire—the

Serapis at least ten times. The *Richard* was riddled with shot. Jones lashed the two ships together so neither could escape. It was a life-or-death struggle, one of the most desperate in naval annals. At the end of three hours the British surrendered. The *Richard* was sinking. Paul Jones transferred his crew to the *Serapis* and sailed away, in the prize he had won, while the *Bon Homme Richard* went to the bottom of the sea.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Give the plans of the British. Tell of Burgoyne's Invasion. Of Bennington. Of Burgoyne's Surrender. Of Fort Stanwix. What were the results? Tell of the French Alliance. Tell of the British movements to take Philadelphia, and Washington's defense. What battles were fought? Where did the American Army spend the winter of 1777-1778? What led to the Battle of Monmouth? What kinds of money were in use during the war? What caused it to depreciate? How did the lack of money affect the war? Give an account of the American navy and of the heroism of Paul Jones.

Tell something of the following named persons and places: Robert Morris, Daniel Boone, George Rogers Clark, Benedict Arnold, John Stark, St. Leger, Daniel Morgan, Lafayette, Baron Steuben, Sir Henry Clinton; Saratoga, Brandywine, Valley Forge, Wyoming Valley, Stony Point.

CHAPTER XIV.

CAMPAIGNS IN THE SOUTH.

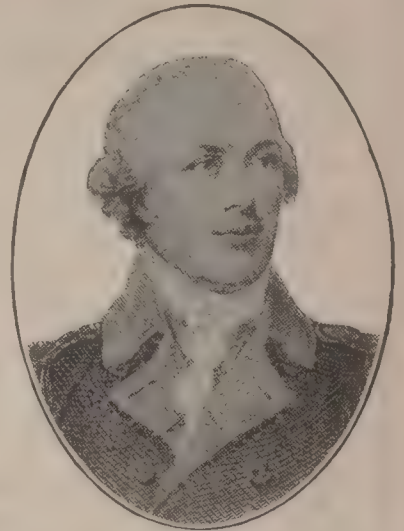
General Plans and Capture of Charleston. The British had made but little progress in the North. Their success on a small scale in Georgia had encouraged them to transfer the main seat of the war to the South. With the aid of a large Tory element, they hoped to take South Carolina, then North Carolina, and move north, subduing one state at a time. In 1780 Clinton and Cornwallis sailed from New York for the South with 8,000 men. They laid siege to Charleston, then the chief city of the South, which was defended by an American force under General Lincoln. After a long siege and a bombardment lasting forty-eight hours, Lincoln was forced to surrender (May 12, 1780) his army of 3,000 troops. This was a serious blow to the American cause. Hundreds of persons took the oath of allegiance to King George, and it seemed that South Carolina was lost.

In June Clinton returned to New York with part of the army, leaving Cornwallis in command to prosecute the war. Before leaving he wrote: "There are few men in South Carolina who are not either our prisoners or in arms with us."

Invasion of South Carolina.—**BATTLE OF CAMDEN.** From Charleston Cornwallis moved northwest across the state, scouring the country, taking the oath of allegiance from the inhabitants, and enlisting Tories. An American army was organized at Hillsboro, North Carolina.* Gates, the "hero of Saratoga," was put in command by Congress, contrary to the wishes of Washington. The army moved forward and confronted Cornwallis at Camden. Here Gates met a crushing defeat, August 16, 1780,—the most overwhelming that had yet been

* DeKalb was sent with the Maryland and Delaware troops. The militia of the southern states was collected, and Washington sent his Virginia and North Carolina troops.

given to an American army. In fact, his force was practically dispersed; but from its remnants and from fresh recruits, a new army was formed at Charlotte. Nathanael Greene, an able general, was put in command. Cornwallis advanced, boasting that he would soon conquer all the states south of the Susquehanna river. He sent out side expeditions to whip the colonists into line. The most noted one of these was led by Colonel Tarleton; another was commanded by Major Ferguson.



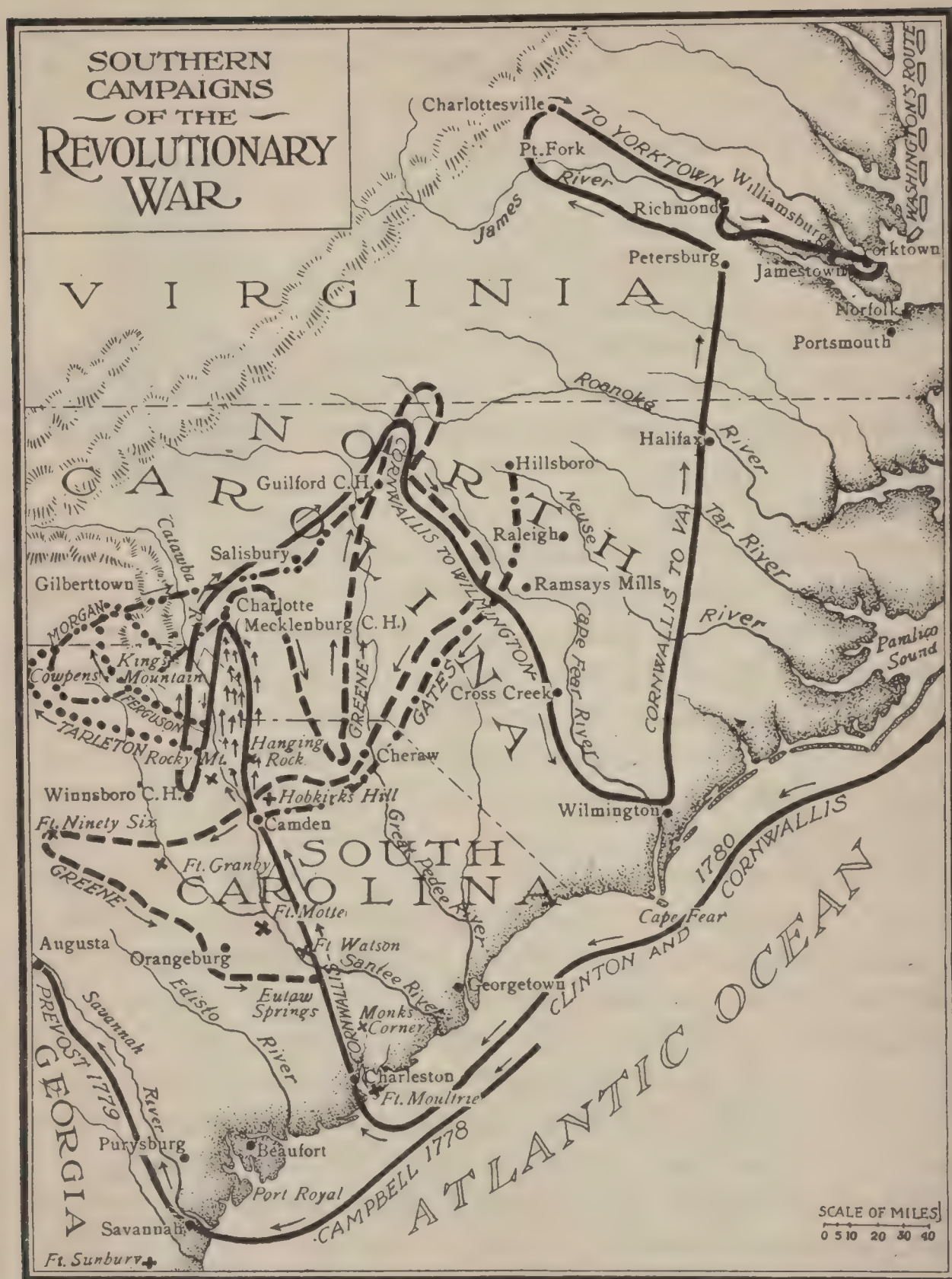
NATHANAEL GREENE.

BATTLE OF KING'S MOUNTAIN. The British advanced into the region where Tories were few and patriot sharpshooters many. These sharpshooters from the backwoods drove Ferguson's men to the top of King's Mountain, and on October 7, 1780, stormed the mountain, killing or capturing the entire British force of 1,100 men. Ferguson was killed. The patriot loss was very small. What Bennington was in the North, King's Mountain was in the South.

BATTLE OF COWPENS. General Greene, after taking command (December, 1780), divided his small army, sending Daniel Morgan to the southwest to harass Cornwallis and to secure patriot recruits. Cornwallis, however, sent Tarleton to dispose of Morgan. The two armies met at Cowpens, January 17, 1781. With superb skill, Morgan gave a crushing defeat to the British, killing, wounding and capturing as many as were in his own command. Tarleton was wounded in a personal encounter with Colonel Washington,* but escaped with less than 300 men.

MORGAN'S RETREAT. Cornwallis hastened in a confident attempt to capture Morgan's army before Morgan could unite

* Colonel Washington was a distant relation of George Washington. Some months after the battle, Tarleton, when speaking to a Mrs. Jones, a witty American lady, said: "Colonel Washington is very illiterate. I am told he cannot write his name." "Oh, Colonel," said she, "you bear evidence that he can make his mark," referring to the scar which he bore as a result of an encounter with Washington.



Trace the movements of the British army from New York to Charleston; to Camden and Charlotte. Note movements of Ferguson, Tarleton, and Gates; note Morgan's retreat from Cowpens to Guilford Court House, and Greene's march to the same place from Cheraw. Trace the British pursuit; locate the battle of Guilford Court House; trace the British march to Wilmington; Greene's recovery of South Carolina and Georgia by way of Hobkirk's Hill, Ninety-Six, and Eutaw Springs; the British march from Wilmington to Virginia, and surrender at Yorktown.

Tell a connected story of plans, marches, victories and defeats.

with Greene. The three armies raced northward, Morgan closely pursued by Cornwallis, and Greene hastening to his rescue from Cheraw; but Morgan escaped across the streams, which were flooded, to Guilford Court House, where Greene joined him and took command, conducting the retreat across the Dan river into Virginia, where he was reinforced.

Retreat of Cornwallis. Greene then returned to North Carolina, and attacked Cornwallis at Guilford Court House (now Greensboro), March 15, 1781. Cornwallis held the field, but lost one-third of his army. Patriots rose in force around him. Only with great difficulty could he get food for his army. Facing these and other dangers, he felt he could not risk another battle, so he marched to Wilmington, the nearest seaport, for supplies. After resting his army at Wilmington, he moved northward into Virginia, where Arnold, the traitor, was in command of the British forces.



A BAND OF PATRIOTS SURPRISING A BRITISH CAMP.

Partisan Leaders. In addition to the regular army, sometimes independent of it, and sometimes working with it, bands of patriots carried on a merciless guerilla warfare against the

enemy. The most famous of them were Francis Marion, Thomas Sumter, Henry Lee, and Andrew Pickens. They knew every road and by-path. There was no telling where a blow from these active, fearless leaders would fall next. From swamp and mountain retreat they darted forth, striking British outposts, assailing the rear or flank of an army with fury, falling upon detached parties of British, or inflicting dire punishment on bands of Tories. Their daring and vigilance had much to do with keeping the cause of freedom alive, and in finally recovering the South from the grip of the British.

Greene Recovers South Carolina. Greene followed Cornwallis for fifty miles after the battle of Guilford Court House, then turned his attention to recovering South Carolina and Georgia. At Hobkirk's Hill, near Camden, he fought an obstinate and indecisive battle with a British force under Lord Rawdon, April 25, 1781. Aided by Marion, Sumter and Lee, the Americans scurried over the country, taking post after post. The last battle in this region was fought at Eutaw Springs, September 8, 1781. The British were finally driven into Savannah and Charleston, under the protection of their fleet.

Campaign in Virginia. Arriving in Virginia, Cornwallis, outranking Arnold, took command of all the forces and made raids here and there, destroying large amounts of property, public and private. To oppose him was an army under General Lafayette, too small to offer serious resistance, but active enough to keep the British busy in vain attempts to run it down and capture it. Finally, upon receiving reinforcements, Lafayette took the offensive. But about this time Cornwallis received a message from Clinton, directing him to fortify some place along the coast, so aid might be sent from one place to another, when needed. He selected Yorktown, which he began to fortify in August, 1781. Lafayette posted his army eight miles away.

Strategy of Washington, and Surrender of Cornwallis. Washington at this very time was planning an attack on New York, which had been weakened by the withdrawal of detach-

ments to the South. A French fleet under Count Rochambeau was to assist. When Washington learned that Cornwallis had taken a position at Yorktown, and that a large French fleet, under De Grasse, would soon sail up the Chesapeake, he changed his plans. Feigning an attack on New York to deceive the British, he slipped away on a forced march for Yorktown, arriving at Philadelphia before Clinton learned his purpose. From Philadelphia he moved to Elkton. Here his troops were placed on French transports, awaiting them, and were carried to Williamsburg, where they joined Lafayette's army. Already the French fleet had blocked the bay, and cut off escape by water. Washington and Lafayette with 14,000 French and American troops shut off retreat by land. The British were hemmed in, their food supply was cut off, and escape was impossible. Starvation or surrender was the alternative. Clinton sent 7,000 men to the relief of Cornwallis, but it was too late. The day they left New York, Cornwallis surrendered his army of 8,000 men, October 19, 1781.



SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS.

The allied army was drawn up in two columns over a mile long, facing each other. On the one side were the French, on the other side were the

Americans. At the head of one was Washington, at the head of the other was Count Rochambeau. Between these columns the British army marched, with solemn tread, as their drums beat time to the tune, "The World Turned Upside Down." General O'Harra rode up to General Washington and informed him that Cornwallis could not be present. Washington directed General Lincoln, who had surrendered to Cornwallis at Charleston, now to receive the sword of Cornwallis.

EFFECT OF THE SURRENDER. The news of the surrender of Cornwallis made the colonists wild with delight. A wave of rejoicing swept over the land. When the news reached Philadelphia near midnight, Old Liberty Bell rang out, and soon the streets were filled with crowds of happy people. Congress met in a church to give thanks to God, and designated December 13 as a day for national thanksgiving.

When the news reached England, Lord North said, "Oh, God! It is all over!" The King wished to continue the conflict, but the people were tired of war, and Parliament the next spring took measures to end it. Clinton was relieved of command. Sir Guy Carleton succeeded him, with instructions to bring the war to a close.

Commissioners from the United States and England met at Paris, and, in November, 1782, agreed on terms of peace; but the treaty was not finally signed until September 3, 1783.

John Adams, Benjamin Franklin and John Jay were the peace commissioners. The treaty was made with Great Britain without the consent of France. This was in violation of the alliance treaty of 1778. The commissioners believed that France wished to limit the United States to the territory east of the Alleghany Mountains, in the interests of Spain, her ally against England; so the commissioners treated secretly with England, and induced her to agree to the Mississippi as our boundary. England did not sign the Treaty of Paris until she had agreed on terms of peace with both Spain and France.

The Treaty of Paris, 1783. The important provisions of the Treaty of Paris were:

1. Great Britain recognized the independence of the United States, and agreed to withdraw all armies, fleets and garrisons with convenient speed.

2. The United States was given the right to fish off the coasts of Canada and Newfoundland.

3. All debts contracted before the war by merchants of either nation were to be paid. (Nearly all these debts were due British merchants.)



CONFISCATED PROPERTY OF A TORY.

This property was confiscated because it was the home of a Tory, Abram Zabriskie, and was awarded to Baron Steuben for services in the Revolutionary War. It is in northeast New Jersey, bordering the Hackensack river, near where Washington's army crossed. The house was built in 1734, and is in a good state of preservation today. Steuben later sold the property to its original owner for \$15,000.

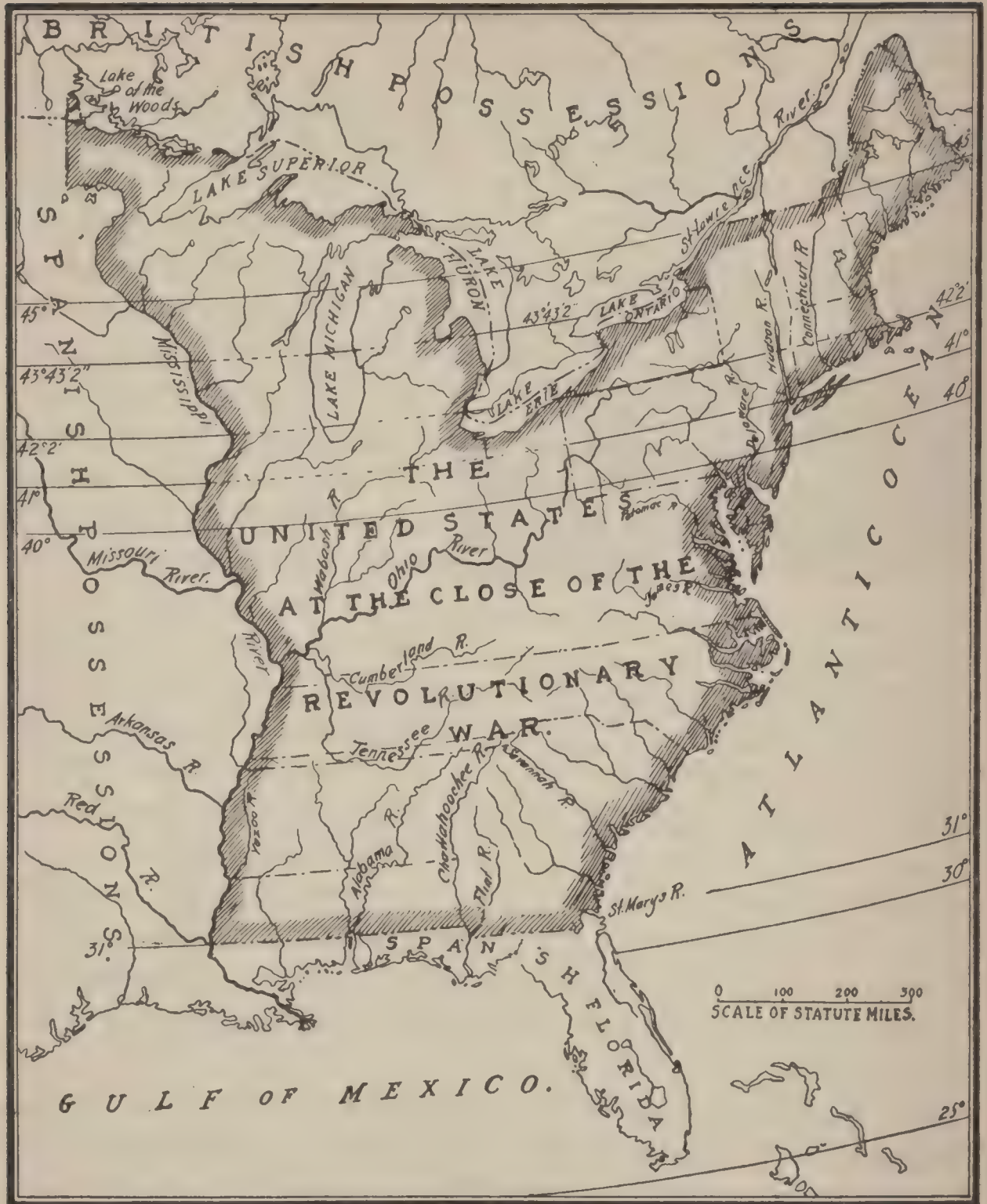
5. Each nation, so far as the other was concerned, was to have free navigation of the Mississippi river. (This was for a time a dead letter, for Spain owned the land on both sides of the mouth of the river, and so had absolute control of the entrance.)

6. The boundaries of the United States* were fixed at the Mississippi on the west; Spanish Florida on the south; and the present boundary on the north.

By a separate treaty, England ceded the Floridas (East Florida and West Florida) to Spain. Spain claimed that West Florida extended as far north as the mouth of the Yazoo, instead of the 31st parallel, and for twelve years held the towns in that territory.

4. Congress was to recommend to the legislatures of the states that they should restore the confiscated property of "real British subjects," and of loyalists who did not take arms against the United States, and that other Tories should have a year's time to try to recover their property. (The legislatures never restored the property; but the British government made liberal land grants to many who settled in Canada.)

* See exact boundaries, p. 188.



THE UNITED STATES AT THE CLOSE OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

EXACT BOUNDARY. From the mouth of St. Croix river to its source; thence due north to the Highlands, following the Highlands to the source of the Connecticut river; down the Connecticut to the 45th parallel; thence west to the St. Lawrence; up the St. Lawrence to Lake Ontario; through Lakes Ontario, Erie, St. Clair, Huron, Superior, and through Pigeon river, Rainy Lake, and Rainy river, to the northwest corner of the Lake of the Woods; thence south to the source of the Mississippi; down the Mississippi to the 31st parallel; due east to the Chattahoochee river; down the Chattahoochee to its confluence with the Flint; eastward to the source of the St. Mary's river; and along the St. Mary's to the ocean.

Cost of the War. It is very difficult to arrive at the exact cost of the Revolution, as no official records were kept. Estimates place the amount spent by America at \$140,000,000; by France, for America, at \$60,000,000; and by England, \$500,000,000.

Getting money was one of the most perplexing questions of the war. Congress tried to obtain it for immediate use: 1. By loans, foreign and domestic; 2. By taxation; 3. By issuing paper money.

The amount raised by foreign loans during the war was nearly \$8,000,000* and by domestic loans about \$12,000,000. The balance of the expenditures was met by issuing paper money and certificates of value.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Tell a connected story of the movements of the British army from Charleston to Yorktown, giving plans, battles, and results. Tell of the surrender of Cornwallis. Give the six provisions of the treaty of 1783. What were the boundaries of the United States by this treaty?

* Of this sum France loaned \$6,352,500; Holland, \$1,304,000; and Spain, \$174,017.

CHAPTER XV.

FORMATION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

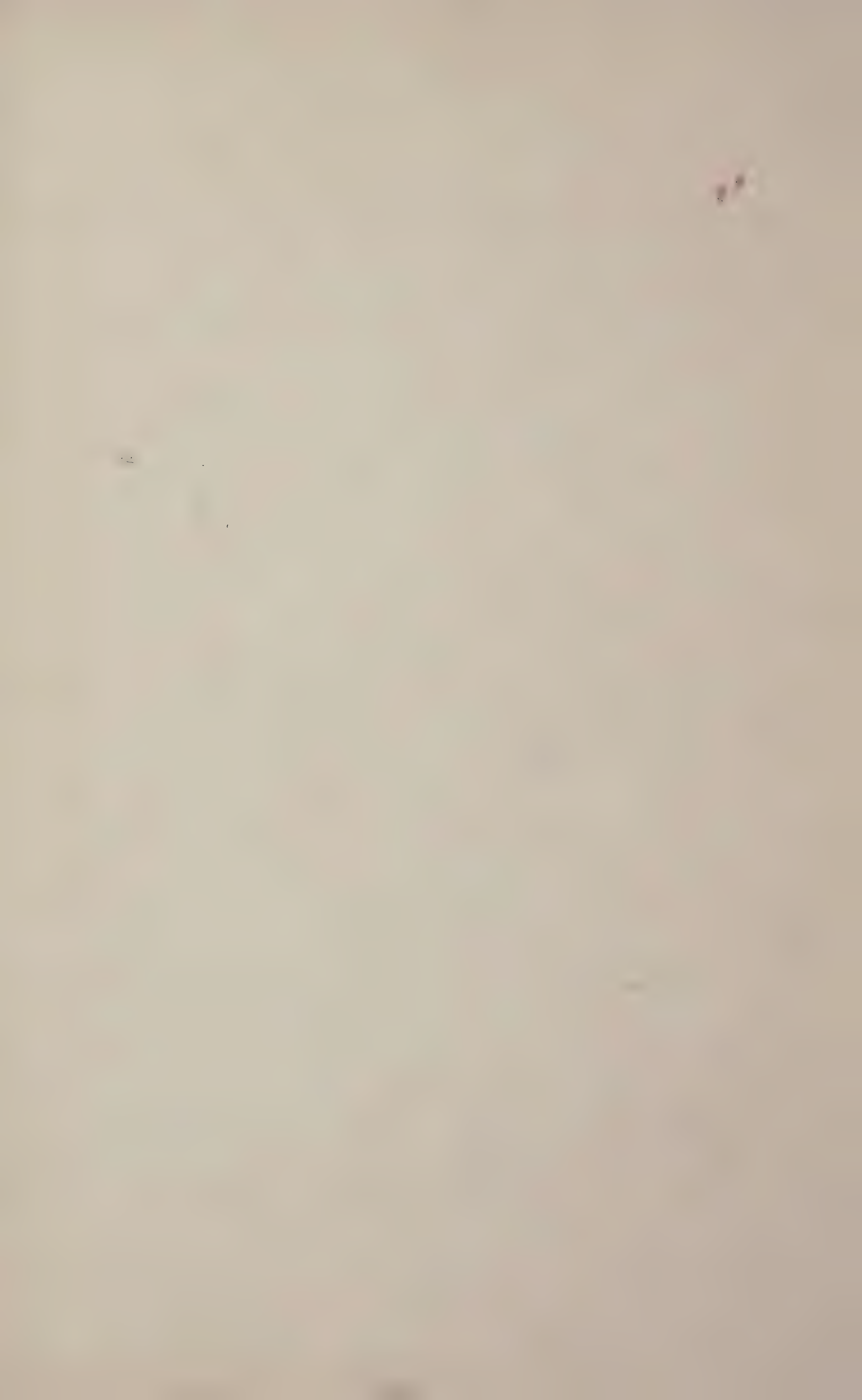
Continental Congress and Formation of State Constitutions. The Continental Congress was the central governing body during the war. It had, however, no precedent to follow and no constitution to guide it, and was without power to enforce its own acts. With only the power to advise or recommend, it was a poor and ineffective governing body.

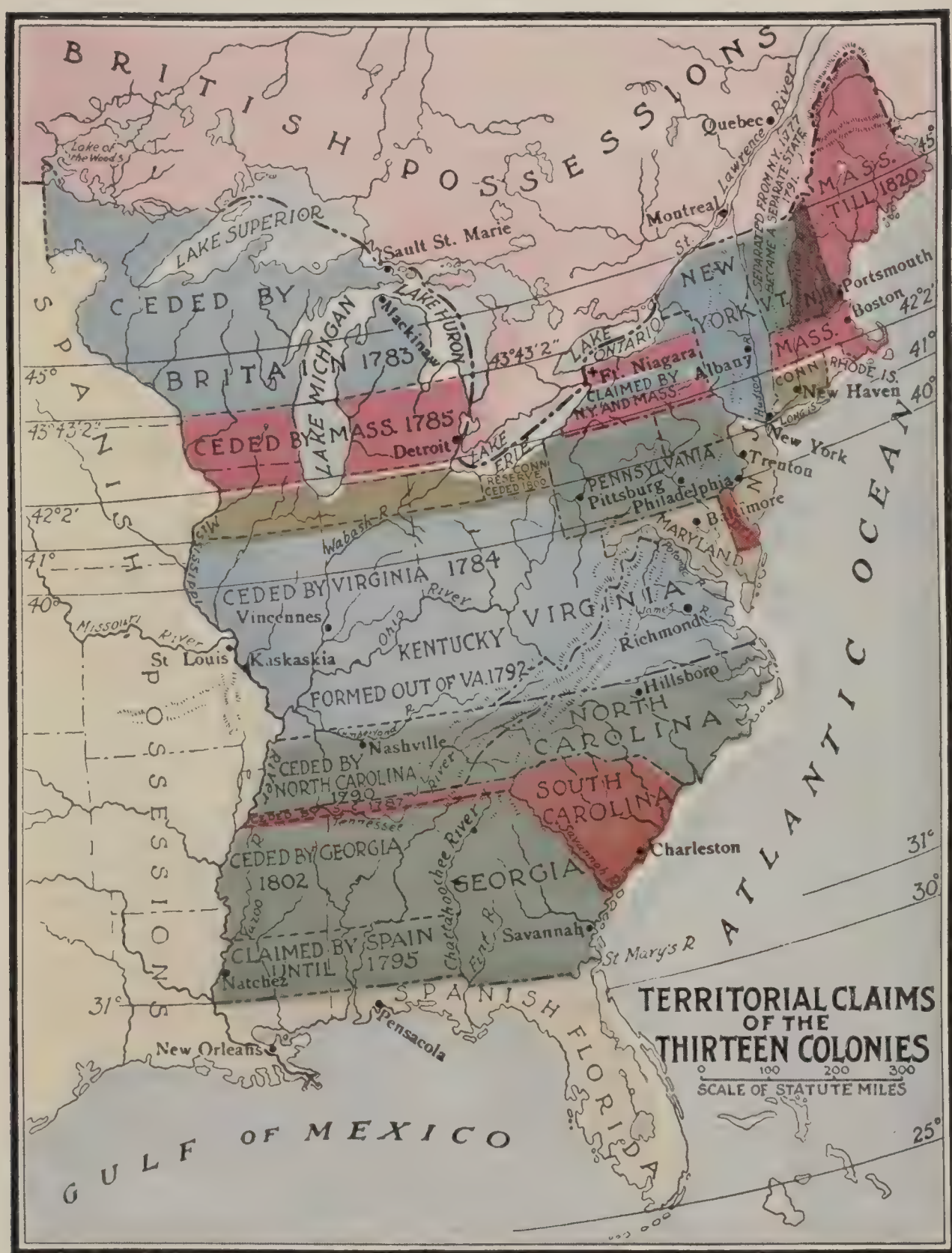
After the Declaration of Independence, each colony became in effect a free, independent state. The people in each state—excepting in Connecticut and Rhode Island, which retained their charters—chose representatives who met and drew up a plan of government, called the state constitution. The government in each state was divided into three branches: the legislative or law-making, the judicial or law-judging, and the executive or law-enforcing.

Articles of Confederation Prepared. On June 12, 1776,* Congress appointed a committee to draft Articles of Confederation to govern the new nation, the United States of America. Congress did not agree on the Articles of Confederation until November, 1777, more than a year after the appointment of the committee. The Articles were then referred to the individual states, and, before they could become the law of the land, had to be adopted by every one of the thirteen states. The states were slow in ratifying the Articles. Having been oppressed by one government, they were cautious lest they should be made to suffer in the same way by another.

Some of the states that had definite western boundaries, like Delaware and Maryland, refused to approve the Articles unless the states which had claims to western lands would place such

* This was one day after the committee was appointed to write the Declaration of Independence.





land under the control of Congress. The states finally agreed to do this, and Maryland, the last of the colonies, ratified March 1, 1781. The Articles of Confederation became the fundamental law of the United States, March 2, 1781.

Claims to the Western Land. Seven states—Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia—had claims on the land west of the Appalachian Mountains. The charters of six of these gave them the land from “sea to sea.” When the Mississippi river became the western boundary of the United States, they no longer claimed from “sea to sea,” but from the Atlantic to the Mississippi. New York, the seventh, claimed land west of its charter border, the Delaware river, by rights purchased of the Iroquois Indians. All states ceded their rights to the United States. All the vast region between the mountains and the Mississippi river then became the property of the national government, and was called the “Public Domain.” The land was to be surveyed and divided into sections, townships, and ranges. Out of it Congress was to form new states which were to come into the Union on an equal footing with the thirteen original states. The land was to be sold and the money used to pay the debts of the government. People flocked into the new country. Later, territories were formed and new states admitted to the Union.

The Northwest Territory. The land lying west of Pennsylvania and north of the Ohio river was organized by Congress, in 1787, into a territory which has ever since been called the Northwest Territory, and the organic act is known as the Ordinance of 1787.

Ordinance of 1787. The year 1787 is famous in our history. It is the year in which the Constitution, the greatest document of the age, was drafted, and the year in which the first law for territorial government, the Ordinance of 1787, was passed.

The important provisions of this Ordinance were:

1. A form of government for the Northwest Territory. Congress was to appoint a governor, secretary, and judges. Neither property nor religious qualifications were nor could be required



THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY. Organized 1787.

New York ceded its claims in 1781; Virginia in 1784; Massachusetts, 1785; Connecticut, 1786; South Carolina, 1781; North Carolina, 1790; and Georgia, 1802. Connecticut kept a strip of land in northeast Ohio, called "The Western Reserve," but in 1800 she ceded the right of jurisdiction to the government but retained the ownership of the land. Virginia reserved two tracts of land north of the Ohio: one between the Scioto and Miami rivers, which was a military reservation for Revolutionary soldiers; the other in southern Indiana, which was given to George Rogers Clark and his soldiers.

of voters. Lands were to be purchased of the Indians. One delegate was to be sent to Congress, who was allowed the right to debate but not to vote.

2. The Territory should eventually be divided into not less than three nor more than five states, each of which upon reaching a population of 60,000 should be admitted to the Union.

3. Slavery and involuntary servitude were forever prohibited except as a punishment for crime.* (Confinement in jails, reformatories, and penitentiaries, is involuntary servitude.)

4. Schools and the means of education were to be encouraged,† because "religion, morality and knowledge are necessary to good government."

5. No person behaving himself in a peaceable and orderly manner could be molested on account of his worship or religious sentiments.

The Articles of Confederation. By 1787 the weakness of the Articles of Confederation and the need of a stronger government became more and more apparent. At the time of the adoption of the Articles, the people were attached to their respective states. They magnified state pride. To be a citizen of the state was a prouder distinction than to be a citizen of the republic. With this feeling the members of Congress reserved much power for the states, and gave but little power to the general government. The states were supreme. Jealousy, strife and business confusion existed. The hopes and desires for a prosperous nation were not realized. Independence and freedom had not brought national happiness and greatness. For seven years the colonists struggled through the hardships of war. For six years more they tried in vain, under the Articles of Confederation, to unite the thirteen states into one nation.

PROVISIONS. The Articles of Confederation gave Congress power: 1. To declare war and to make peace. 2. To regulate foreign affairs, to manage postoffices, to keep an army and navy, to settle disputes between states, to manage Indian affairs, to issue and to borrow money, to recommend that states raise money to pay the debts, and to meet the current expenses of the government.

WEAKNESS OF THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION. 1. The

* Slaves escaping from other states into the Territory might be returned to their owners.

† The plan of setting apart certain sections of land in each township for school purposes was part of an Act passed by Congress in 1785, and related to all western lands ceded by the states to the general government. Ohio was the first state to take advantage of the act. Section 16 of every township was set aside in her constitution (1802) for school purposes.

most serious defect was the fact that Congress could not *enforce* its own laws. It could *recommend* that the states raise money, but it could not compel them to pay; so the national government could not pay its expenses. Congress could say, "Please do this" and "Please do that," and if the states saw fit, it was done; if not, Congress was helpless. It could make treaties, but could not enforce them. Congress could not preserve order at home nor command respect abroad, because it could not punish individual citizens nor compel states to obey its laws.

2. There were no national courts to pass upon questions which affected the whole people.

3. Congress could not control trade between the states or with foreign nations. Each state made its own laws regulating commerce. There were no uniform tariff laws. States would bid against each other in admitting foreign goods. If several states combined to fix a uniform price, another would lower the rate and secure the imports. States even taxed goods brought from neighboring states. These in turn would retaliate by placing a duty on goods shipped to them from the offending states.

4. Each State had but one vote, and from two to seven delegates, in Congress. This gave the small states as much power as the large ones. Nine votes out of thirteen were necessary for the passage of important laws. One state out of nine present could defeat a measure.

These conditions led to strife, uncertainty, bitterness. Trade was disturbed and business was at a standstill.

Drifting on a Sea of Trouble.—FINANCE. After the close of the Revolution, our import duties, which had to be paid in specie, were much greater than our exports. The country was therefore drained of nearly all its gold and silver. The nation was without mints and gold and silver mines, and so without specie money. For relief, seven of the states printed paper money, but people would not accept it at face value; so some states passed laws designed to compel persons to take it under penalty of imprisonment. Still the money depreciated.

TROUBLES WITH FOREIGN NATIONS. In addition to the dis-

tress and perils at home, there were troubles with foreign nations.

Spain still held territory north of the 31st parallel and east of the Mississippi, which England had ceded to the United States.

Both England and the United States violated the treaty of Paris. The states refused to obey the provision of the treaty which required the payment of debts contracted before the war. England on the other hand refused to abandon the forts and trading-posts in the Northwest, which helped to secure a valuable fur trade with the Indians and were a means of holding their friendship. Nations had frequently gone to war for less cause than this.

The outlook for the nation was gloomy indeed. Debts, want of money, foreign trouble, paralyzed trade, business depression, discontent of the people, and, worst of all, a helpless central government, made wise men fear the result.

The Annapolis Trade Convention. In this dark hour, Virginia, under the influence of James Madison, proposed that the delegates from the different states meet at Annapolis in September, 1786, to consider the state of American trade and all questions relating thereto. Only five states sent delegates.* These delegates saw clearly that even if all the states should agree on plans for improving trade, there would be no central power to enforce the agreements. So they decided to call a great national convention to meet at Philadelphia in May, 1787, for the purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation. This call for a convention was indorsed by Congress the following February.

Shays's Rebellion. At the very time that the trade convention was in session in Maryland, a rebellion was in progress in Massachusetts. A large number of persons were heavily in debt and unable to pay interest and taxes. Their stock and farms were sold by sheriffs, and some persons were thrown into

* Virginia, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware. Not a delegate came from the New England States. Although the meeting was held in Annapolis, no Maryland delegates were present.

prison. The people became desperate. In the central part of the state, Daniel Shays headed an army of nearly two thousand farmers, who seized the arsenal at Springfield, broke up the court, put a stop to law-suits for debts, destroyed property, and threatened greater violence. For some weeks they defied the authority of the state. The governor, however, sent a strong force of militia, which put an end to the disturbance.

The Constitutional Convention. Fifty-five delegates, representing every state in the Union excepting Rhode Island, met in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, 1787. The Convention sat behind closed doors from May till September. Among the delegates were some of the ablest and wisest men of the time—George Washington, James Madison, Benjamin Franklin, Robert Morris, Gouverneur Morris, Alexander Hamilton, Roger Sherman, Rufus King, Edmund Randolph, James Wilson, and others. Washington was chosen president. They soon gave up all hope of revising the Articles of Confederation, and prepared to draft a new constitution with three departments of government: the legislative, executive, and judicial.

PLANS. While the delegates were assembling, Madison, Randolph and a few others drew the outlines of a constitution. This was called "the Virginia plan," as the chairman of the Virginia delegation presented it to the Convention. Another, drawn by the delegates from some of the smaller states, which was little more than a revision of the Articles, was presented by the delegates from New Jersey, hence called "the New Jersey plan." Alexander Hamilton of New York presented another, which gave very great powers to the central government. The convention selected the Virginia plan as a basis for a new constitution. Every article was carefully considered, debated at length, and many compromises were made before the Constitution was accepted.

COMPROMISES. The most important questions upon which compromises were reached were:

First. How many persons should represent each state in Congress. The delegates agreed that Congress should consist of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The populous states

wished to determine the number of members in each house by the number of people in each state. But the small states insisted that all states should have the same number, irrespective of size or population. After long discussion a delegate from Connecticut proposed that each state should have two senators, but that representatives in the lower house and direct taxes should vary according to population. This was accepted. They also agreed that representatives should be elected by the people for two years, and senators should be elected by the state legislatures for six years.

Second. Who should be counted in each state in fixing the number of representatives? The South said, count all persons, including slaves. The North was opposed to counting the slaves for this purpose unless they were also counted for levying taxes. They finally compromised by concluding to count three-fifths of the slaves for reckoning the number of representatives and for fixing direct taxes in the states.

Third. How far should Congress control commerce between states? Most delegates wanted Congress to control commerce, but they could not agree as to how far this control should go. Southern states feared that if Congress were given the power to regulate commerce it might be used to tax exports, which would destroy southern trade. Some of the southern states wished also to continue to import slaves; others, north and south, opposed it. Again a compromise was made. Congress was given the power "To regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the states and with Indian tribes," but no tax could ever be laid on exports from any state and the slave trade was not to be prohibited before 1808. (See Constitution, p. 207.) These are often called the three great compromises.

PLAN OF CHOOSING A PRESIDENT. There were many different views as to how the President should be elected and how long he should serve. The delegates finally agreed that he should be elected for four years by electors chosen in such manner as the states should decide. Each state should choose electors equal to the number of senators and representatives

it had in Congress. Each elector cast his vote for two persons. The person receiving the highest number of votes, "if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed," became President, and the one receiving the next highest number of votes became Vice-President. The votes were to be sent sealed to the president of the Senate.

This method of choosing the President was not satisfactory, so an amendment was made to the Constitution (Amendment XII, 1804), which required the electors to vote for President and Vice-President by separate ballotings. (See Constitution.)

Thirty-nine delegates signed the Constitution, thirteen left before the convention closed, and three refused to sign.

The Constitution before the People. The Convention sent the Constitution to Congress and Congress sent it to the state legislatures. These legislatures asked the people to elect delegates to conventions in each state to accept or reject the Constitution. The people were divided. The outcome was doubtful almost to the end. The votes of nine states were necessary to put the Constitution into effect. But by July, 1788, eleven states ratified. North Carolina and Rhode Island did not ratify until after Washington became President. The prospect of passing from a poor, weak government to a strong and more adequate one was a cause for public rejoicing. Great celebrations were held in New York and many other cities.

Federalist. Some of the arguments favoring the adoption of the Constitution were published in the newspapers, under the title of *The Federalist* and with the signature of "Publius." These were written by Hamilton, Madison, and Jay, and afterward were bound in a volume,—one of the most famous works ever written on the science of government.

POLITICAL PARTIES. During the Revolutionary War the people were bound together, fighting for a common cause. They lost sight of political differences in their effort to gain independence. After this was closed, the people took different views of self-government. Those who favored the adoption of the new Constitution were called the "Federalists." They believed in a strong Federal government and wanted Congress

to have enough power to regulate trade, raise revenue, and to make and enforce laws.

Those who opposed the adoption of the Constitution were called "Anti-Federalists." They would not have a strong central government, and desired more power left with the individual states. They believed that too much power placed in the hands of a few, would lead again to monarchy. Through their influence Congress, in 1789, proposed amendments* to the Constitution, guaranteeing certain rights and privileges to the people. Ten of these were adopted by the states and became part of the Constitution, 1791. These are sometimes called the "Bill of Rights," and guarantee freedom of speech and religion, and secure personal and property rights.

Loose and Strict Constructionists. Opposition to the constitution now ceased, but the people began to interpret its meaning differently. They disagreed as to what laws were best. The Anti-Federalists held to a "strict" construction of the Constitution, and believed that Congress had authority to do only the things named in the Constitution. They were sometimes called the "Strict" Construction Party. The Federalists† believed that the national government had both expressed and implied powers, and the framers of the Constitution had not foreseen everything that might be for the best interests of the nation. They believed that if a proposed measure was for the benefit of the people, Congress had an implied authority to enact it into law. Such authority extended to every public question, unless the Constitution especially refused that authority to Congress or delegated it to the States. These were called the Loose Construction Party. Some of the questions not referred to in the Constitution are: Annexation of territory, building of canals, national roads, and other internal improvements.

The Strict Construction Party has had three different names :

* The eleventh amendment was added, 1798; the twelfth, 1804; the thirteenth, 1865; the fourteenth, 1868; the fifteenth, 1870.

† Many who were Anti-Federalists before the adoption of the Constitution, after the adoption became Federalists; and many Federalists became Anti-Federalists.

Anti-Federalist, 1788 to 1792; Democratic-Republican, 1792 to 1828; Democratic, 1828 to the present time.

The Loose Construction Party* has had four different names: The Federalist, from 1788 to 1828†; National Republican, from 1828 to 1836; Whig, from 1836 to 1856; the Republican, from 1856 to the present time.

Choosing the First President. Congress was to meet March 4th, 1789, but owing to inconveniences in travel and habits of delay, there was no quorum present until nearly a month later. April 6, the president of the Senate, in the presence of the Senate and the House, opened the envelopes containing the electoral votes. When they were counted it was found that every one of the sixty-nine electors had voted for George Washington. John Adams, having received thirty-four votes, the next highest number cast, was elected Vice-President.

AMERICAN LITERATURE.

Early Colonial Literature (1607 to 1763). As most of the colonists were farmers, laborers, and tradesmen, they had but little time to devote to studying books. Not many of them had a college education. There were a few scholars, principally Puritan ministers of New England, who had the leisure and the learning sufficient to write books.

The Seventeenth Century. One of these ministers, John Eliot, made a written language for the Indians, translated the Bible into that language, compiled the first book printed in America, *The Bay Psalm Book*, and died teaching the alphabet to a little Indian boy.

Several public men, such as William Bradford and John Winthrop, wrote chronicles and kept diaries, which are still used in writing the history of their times.

The Eighteenth Century. There are two men of the

* During Monroe's Administration the Federalist party became almost extinct. The party, however, had representatives in Congress and in state governments.

† This classification of parties is true only in a general way. It must be borne in mind that, at times when there are great national questions before the people, or when parties change party names, there is a great shifting of individuals from one party to another.

early eighteenth century whose writings will live so long as we have a literature. Those two are Jonathan Edwards and Benjamin Franklin, the former a minister, the latter a printer.

JONATHAN EDWARDS was such a profound scholar that there was "scarcely any branch of knowledge he was not master of." He was a poor missionary, whose book, *The Freedom of the Will*, secured him the presidency of Princeton College, and because of it he was called "the grandest theologian since Saint Paul." In this book Edwards attempts to answer two questions: "To what extent can I choose for myself?" and "To what extent does God control my choice?" Edwards says we are responsible for all *evil*, but that we can neither think nor do *good* unless God first gives us the thought and desire for good.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN was the exact opposite of Jonathan Edwards. He was a philosopher of the practical and material. For mental philosophy he cared not a bit. His charming autobiography is second to no other book of that character. He wrote sayings so true that men everywhere have adopted them as guides of conduct. No other man has attempted to compete with him in "forming" proverbs. Some of them the American child knows from his cradle-days, and are so common in his life that he does not know that they came to him from this great sage and scientist. Into a little poster, which he printed from time to time in the shape of a calendar and called *Poor Richard's Almanac*, Franklin incorporated many such proverbs as:

Experience keeps a dear school.
Little strokes fell large oaks.
Diligence is the mother of good luck.
One today is worth two tomorrows.
For want of a nail the shoe was lost,
For want of a shoe the horse was lost.
Three removes are as bad as a fire.

Revolutionary Literature (1763 to 1789). Under the stress of the revolutionary troubles, the impetus which Edwards and Franklin had given to literary art was necessarily retarded. The leaders of colonial thought resorted to the

two forms of literature which appealed most strongly to the masses—the oration and the essay.

THE ORATION. The revolutionary days were the “golden age of oratory.” The mention of the names of Henry, Otis, Quincy, and Adams, fills the American school-boy’s heart with a glowing and enthusiastic love of country. Fragments of their speeches which have come down to us are recited in the school-room and from the platform in every American community. “Give me liberty, or give me death,” and “If that be treason, make the most of it,” will thrill the latest generations of America, as they thrilled the Virginia House of Burgesses.

THE ESSAY. What these patriots were doing with spoken speech, was amplified and enforced by the pens of Paine, Jefferson, Hamilton, Madison, Jay, and a host of others, in pamphlets and editorials.

Paine’s *Crisis* came out as a periodical, and the first number was by an order of Washington read to all the continental soldiers. The author continued this effective work in *Common Sense* and *The Rights of Man*. These three productions of Paine were regarded in Europe as the best examples of political discussion produced in the eighteenth century.

The best literary work performed by Thomas Jefferson, who wrote *Notes on Virginia*, and many great State and political papers, was THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE. This immortal document is a charter deed of human freedom, wherever democracy grapples with absolutism.

Hamilton, Madison and Jay collaborated in producing *The Federalist*, a series of essays written to explain and defend the Constitution of the United States, and to secure its adoption by the several States.

POETRY. A number of colonists, some of them college presidents, attempted to write poetry, but very few of them succeeded. Francis Hopkinson wrote “The Battle of the Kegs,” and his son Joseph gave us our national ode, “Hail, Columbia, Happy Land.” Timothy Dwight, president of Yale, and grandson of Jonathan Edwards, wrote “Columbia, Columbia, to Glory Arise.”

Philip Freneau was probably the only one of these verse-writers who was successful in making poetry, and the best example of his verse, which is in the main sentimental, is "The Wild Honeysuckle."

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

PREAMBLE.

WE, THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.—LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT.

SECTION 1.—All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SEC. 2.—*Clause 1.* The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

Clause 2. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Clause 3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons.* The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.†

* Meaning slaves. (Through the influence of Edmund Randolph the word slave does not appear in the original articles of the Constitution.)

† Under the census of 1900 one representative is apportioned to every 193,291 persons.

Clause 4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

Clause 5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SEC. 3.—*Clause 1.* The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Clause 2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

Clause 3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

Clause 4. The Vice-President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

Clause 5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

Clause 6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief-Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Clause 7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SEC. 4.—*Clause 1.* The times, places and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

Clause 2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SEC. 5.—*Clause 1.* Each House shall be the judge of the elections, re-

turns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each House may provide.

Clause 2. Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Clause 3. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Clause 4. Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SEC. 6.—*Clause 1.* The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

Clause 2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SEC. 7.—*Clause 1.* All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

Clause 2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall

not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Clause 3. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SEC. 8.—*Clause 1.* The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imports and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

Clause 2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

Clause 3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

Clause 4. To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

Clause 5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

Clause 6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

Clause 7. To establish postoffices and post-roads;

Clause 8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

Clause 9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

Clause 10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

Clause 11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

Clause 12. To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

Clause 13. To provide and maintain a navy;

Clause 14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

Clause 15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

Clause 16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

Clause 17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings;—And

Clause 18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department, or officer thereof.

SEC. 9.—*Clause 1.* The migration or importation of such persons* as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

Clause 2. The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

Clause 3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

Clause 4. No capitation, or other direct tax, shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

Clause 5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

Clause 6. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

Clause 7. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

Clause 8. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

SEC. 10.—*Clause 1.* No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

Clause 2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any impost, or duties on imports or exports, except what may be abso-

* Meaning slaves.

lutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

Clause 3. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.—EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT.

SECTION 1.—*Clause 1.* The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows:

Clause 2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

*Clause 3.**

Clause 4. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

Clause 5. No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

Clause 6. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

Clause 7. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services, a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Clause 8. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take

* See Amendment XII, which has superseded this clause.

the following oath or affirmation :—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SEC. 2.—*Clause 1.* The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

Clause 2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

Clause 3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SEC. 3.—He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SEC. 4.—The President, Vice-President and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.—JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

SECTION 1.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SEC. 2.—*Clause 1.** The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in

*See Amendment XI, for modification of this clause.

law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more States;—between a State and citizen of another State;—between citizens of different States;—between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

Clause 2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

Clause 3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SEC. 3.—*Clause 1.* Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

Clause 2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason; but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.—GENERAL PROVISIONS.

SECTION 1.—Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State; and the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SEC. 2.—*Clause 1.* The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

Clause 2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

*Clause 3.** No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be

*This clause refers to slaves as well as to apprentices.

delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SEC. 3.—*Clause 1.* New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

Clause 2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SEC. 4.—The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of Government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the Legislature, or of the executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.—POWER OF AMENDMENT.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.—MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS.

Clause 1. All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

Clause 2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

Clause 3. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound

by oath or affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.—RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the States present the seventeenth day of September in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE' WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON,
Secretary.

[In the original draft of the Constitution there here follow the signatures of the delegates by States. There were fifty-five delegates in the Convention, of which only thirty-nine signed the document. Rhode Island was not represented.]

AMENDMENTS

TO THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES, RATIFIED ACCORDING TO THE PROVISIONS OF THE FIFTH ARTICLE OF THE FOREGOING CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE 1.*—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ART. 2.—A well-regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ART. 3.—No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ART. 4.—The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ART. 5.—No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury,

*Amendments I to X took effect December 15, 1791.

except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor to be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ART. 6.—In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ART. 7.—In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ART. 8.—Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ART. 9.—The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ART. 10.—The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ART. 11.*—The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ART. 12.†—The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate;—the president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted;—the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the

*Took effect January 8, 1798.

†Took effect September 25, 1804.

highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ART. 13.*—SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the person shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SEC. 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ART. 14.†—SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SEC. 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

*Took effect December 18, 1865.

†Took effect July 28, 1868.

SEC. 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disability.

SEC. 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SEC. 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ART. 15.*—SECTION 1. The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

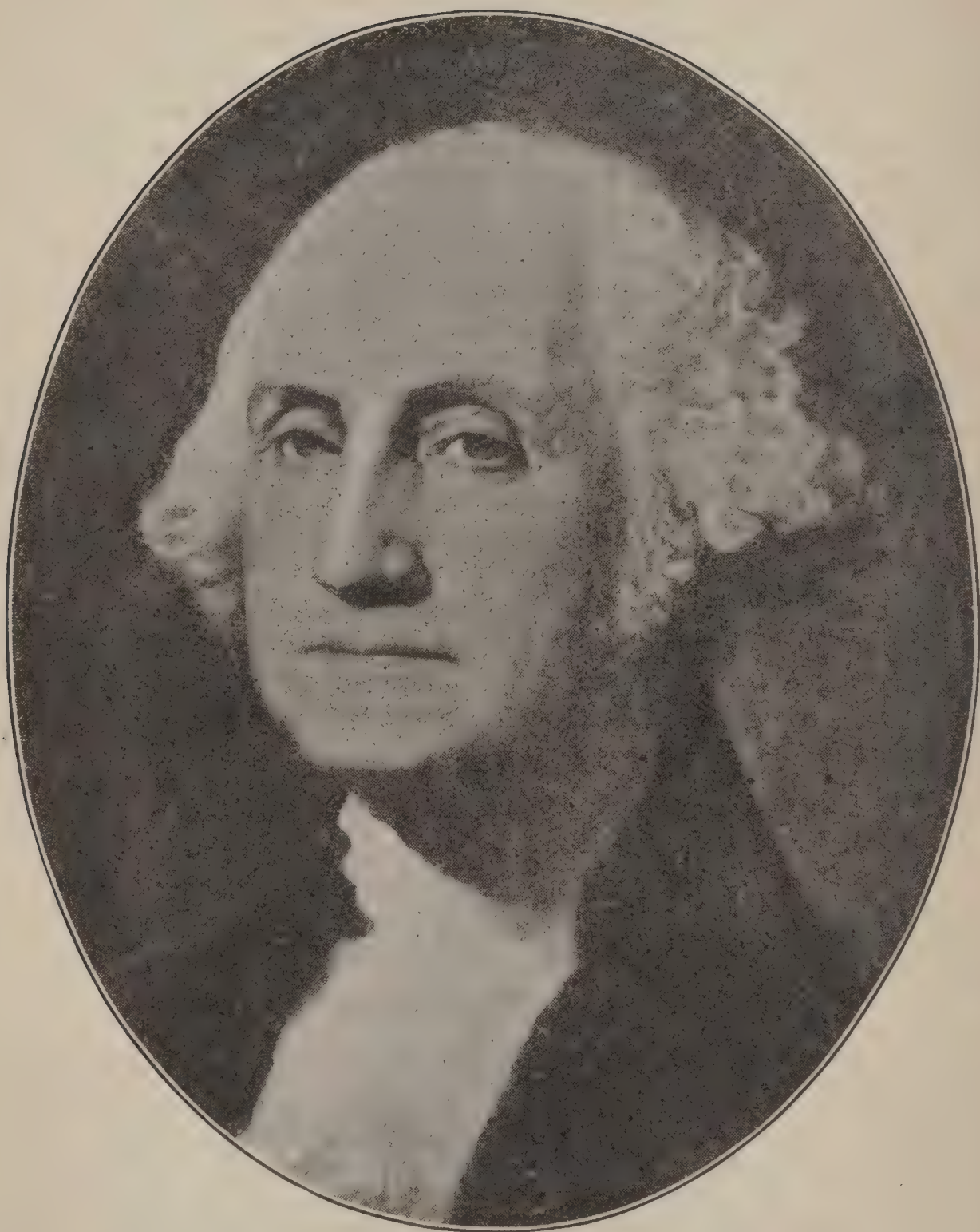
SEC. 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

*Took effect March 30, 1870.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Why was it necessary to substitute a new constitution for the Articles of Confederation? What states claimed land west of the Appalachian Mountains? What did they do with their claims? What was the Ordinance of 1787? Give five provisions. Name four weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation. Tell about the Annapolis Trade Convention. Who were there? What caused Shays's Rebellion? Who were the leaders of the Constitutional Convention? What plans were presented? What three great compromises are in the Constitution? What three departments of government are provided for? How was the Constitution ratified? Who was elected first President under its provision? Give an account of the formation of political parties. Why was one called the Loose Construction Party? The other the Strict Construction Party? Trace their development.

Write an outline of the chapter. What dates should be remembered? Name six men who were prominent in forming the Constitution.



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

"First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

CHAPTER XVI.

ESTABLISHING A GOVERNMENT.

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION, 1789-1797.

Inauguration of Washington, April 30, 1789. Washington, after learning of his election, left his home at Mt. Vernon, in his private carriage, for New York City, then the seat of government. Great crowds of people gathered along the route to render homage to the man who had led them successfully through the perils of a great war. To him they now looked with confidence to direct the new government in time of peace. At Alexandria he received a royal welcome. A great celebration was held in Philadelphia in honor of his arrival there. The people of Trenton had erected an arch, supported by thirteen pillars and surmounted by a dome twined with flowers and evergreens; upon the arch was the inscription, "The Defender of the Mothers will be the Protector of the Daughters," and on the dome above, "To Thee Alone."

Washington was inaugurated April 30, 1789, on the balcony of Federal Hall, New York City. The scene was most impressive. A great multitude of people had assembled to witness the ceremony. Chancellor Livingston administered the oath, which the Constitution requires the President to take before entering upon the duties of his office. At the end of the ceremony the people joined in shouting, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States!"

The President's Cabinet.* Congress knew that the President would need help in managing the executive branch of the government. It accordingly created several departments

* The President's Cabinet now consists of nine members: Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, Postmaster-General, Attorney-General, Secretary of the Navy, Secretary of the Interior, Secretary of Agriculture, and Secretary of Commerce and Labor.

with a secretary at the head of each. These assistants or secretaries collectively have since become known as the President's Cabinet. Washington chose distinguished men to fill the positions. Thomas Jefferson was made Secretary of State; Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury; Henry Knox, Secretary of War; and Edmund Randolph, Attorney-General. Each Secretary had charge of his department, and from time to time gave advice to the President.

The First Congress. Sessions of Congress. The first Congress had a momentous task to perform. Without a law nation another start. Their task was so well and so wisely performed that many of the laws contained provisions which have remained permanent features of the government. Congress had to supply the machinery to operate the government and to raise revenue. The executive department was formed, revenue bills passed, a system of courts established, amendments to the Constitution proposed, the national capital located, laws enacted for the territories, and salaries fixed for the federal officers.

A Congress lasts two years. The first Congress began nominally March 4,* 1789, and lasted until March 4, 1791. It held three sessions. Each new Congress begins with the odd year, and has two regular sessions, for the Constitution requires Congress to meet at least once a year, beginning with the first Monday in each December. The first session of each Congress may continue until the next December (though it never has done so). This is called the long session. The next year it may remain in session only to March 4th, as the term of office of Congressmen then expires. This is called the short session. In addition to these, there may be special sessions called by the President.

The Judiciary Established, 1789.† The Constitution provides that the judicial power of the United States shall be

* Congress was to meet March 4, 1789, but the members were so tardy in coming that the House was not organized until April 1, and the Senate until April 6.

† The number of associate justices has since been increased to eight, making nine in all,—eight associate justices, and one supreme justice. In 1891 the circuit court of appeals was created, and in 1911 the circuit courts were abolished.

vested in one Supreme Court and such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. Congress, accordingly, in 1789, created the circuit and district courts of the United States, and voted that one chief justice and five associate justices should constitute the supreme court. (Constitution, article III, p. 209.) John Jay was appointed chief justice by Washington. Thus, the three departments of government—executive, legislative, and judicial—were fully organized.

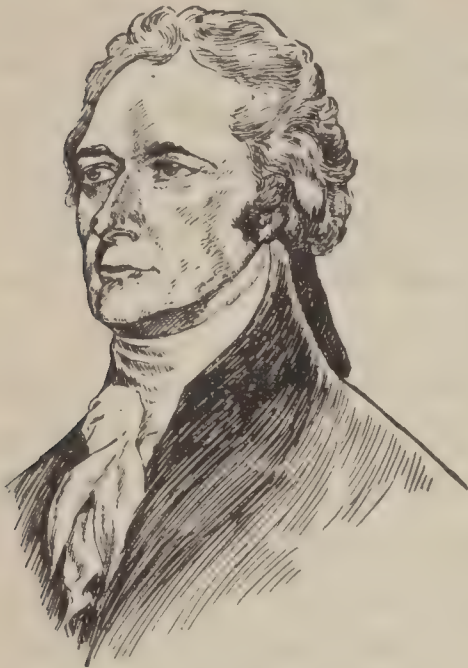
The National Capital. The national capital has been located at three different places: New York City, Philadelphia, and Washington. It was at New York from 1789 to 1791, when the question of a permanent location was considered by Congress. There were many views as to where it should be located, but all agreed that some central place should be selected. Congress finally voted to locate the capital at Philadelphia for ten years, from 1790 to 1800, and after 1800 on the Potomac river at some place to be selected by the President. In 1793 Washington chose the present site, which was named in his honor. The construction of a Federal building was at once commenced, and in 1800 the seat of government was transferred to Washington.*

The Financial Condition of the Nation, 1789. When Washington became President the national treasury was empty, the daily cost of running the government was large, and a war debt of nearly \$80,000,000 was unpaid.† A nation as well as an individual must have some source of income to meet expenses. How to secure the needed money was probably the most urgent question before Congress at this time. Alexander Hamilton, the brilliant Secretary of the Treasury, set to work to form a plan which would establish the new republic upon a firm financial basis and give it credit at

* The capital city is located in the District of Columbia, a tract of land containing sixty-four square miles, lying on the north bank of the Potomac river. It originally was ten miles square, an equivalent of 100 square miles. The land was ceded by Maryland and Virginia to the general government. That portion ceded by Virginia was returned to the state in 1846.

† This included the state debts, payment of which was assumed by Congress.

home and abroad. His recommendations to Congress were enacted, in the main, into law, and have ever since been the basis for our national revenue.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

"He smote the rock of national resources, and abundant streams of revenue burst forth. He touched the dead corpse of public credit, and it sprang upon its feet."—*Webster*.

Hamilton's Financial Policy.

1. ASSUMPTION AND PAYMENT OF ALL DEBTS. Upon Hamilton's advice Congress agreed:

1st. To pay the foreign debt, principal and interest amounting to \$11,710,000.

2d. To pay the whole debt due American citizens, called the domestic debt, amounting to about \$42,414,000.

3rd. To pay the state debts incurred in support of the war, which were fixed at \$21,500,000.*

Many congressmen did not believe that the United States should pay the state debts. Hamilton and his followers contended that the money had been spent for the benefit of all, in the movement for independence; therefore, the general government should assume the debts and pay them. Hamilton, however, could not muster enough votes to carry the proposed plan, until by an agreement to place the national capital on the banks of the Potomac, two of the Virginia members, who had formerly opposed assumption, now voted for it.

II. MEASURE TO PROVIDE A REVENUE.† The next great question was to raise the money to pay these debts. A tax was laid on goods imported from foreign countries. Revenue collectors were stationed at the custom-houses to collect the money for the government before the goods would be admitted. This was the first tariff act, passed in July, 1789. It was intended not only to provide a revenue, but also to protect the

* The estimated state debt was \$25,000,000, but Congress assumed and paid only \$21,500,000.

† James Madison was prominent in creating the revenue laws.

manufacturing interests. The tax raised the price at which foreign goods had to be sold. The American manufacturer, whose goods were not taxed but who had to pay more for labor than his foreign competitors, could still conduct business at a profit.

A few days later Congress passed a tonnage act, which imposed a tax of six cents per ton on American-built and owned vessels, thirty cents on American-built and foreign-owned vessels, and fifty cents on foreign-built and foreign-owned vessels.

The revenue for the first year under these acts was \$1,900,000, but this was only two-thirds of the amount required for the actual running expenses of the government. Other legislation was necessary. Accordingly, Congress passed an internal revenue or excise act, 1791. By this act, distillers were required to pay a tax on every gallon of liquor made in the United States.

III. AGENCIES TO CARRY ON THE FINANCES.—*National Bank and Mint.*—*The Bank.* A law was passed, 1791, chartering the United States Bank, at Philadelphia, for twenty years, with a capital of \$10,000,000. The government owned one-fifth of the bank stock, deposited its money in the bank, and used it as an agency to assist in collecting, borrowing, and paying money. The parent bank was authorized to establish branches in the chief cities and towns, and to issue bank notes which were receivable for any debt due the government.

At this time there was no such thing as a national currency. There were no notes or gold or silver coin in circulation, bearing the stamp of the United States. The currency was state paper (or bills of credit), and foreign coin, principally English, Spanish, and French. The value of these varied in different states and different localities. The paper money issued by the states had depreciated greatly in value, and was not everywhere receivable.

The Mint, 1791; Coinage Act, 1792. The new constitution took all rights from the states to coin money or emit bills of credit (paper money). The sole power of coining money was placed in the hands of Congress. In 1791 a bill was passed

to establish a mint at Philadelphia,* and in 1792 the first coinage act was passed. It provided for *free and unlimited* coinage of both *gold and silver*. Any person who had gold or silver bullion could send it to the mint and have it coined into money, and receive every grain taken there, and, in addition, the alloy to harden the coin, all without cost to him.

The gold coins were the eagle, half-eagle, and quarter-eagle; the silver coins were the dollar, half-dollar, quarter, dime, and half-dime; copper was coined into the cent and half-cent pieces. One ounce of gold was equal in value to fifteen ounces of silver. The coinage ratio was therefore made 15 to 1.† From that day to this, we practically have had free and unlimited coinage of gold,‡ but the basis for the coinage of silver has been changed several times.

Political Parties. The persons who were opposed to Hamilton's policies formed the nucleus for the Democratic-Republican party. Its greatest leaders were Thomas Jefferson and James Madison. They and their followers believed in a close construction of the Constitution and in defending the rights of the states against the encroachments of the National Government. The defenders of Hamilton's policy called themselves Federalists. They placed a broad construction on the Constitution, favoring a strong central government, and indorsing Hamilton's financial policy.

Cotton Gin Invented by Eli Whitney, 1793. While the statesmen were busy shaping the policies of the country, an invention was made which greatly affected the industries of the nation. The cotton fiber adheres firmly to the seed, from which it must be separated before it can be made into cloth. A negro slave could not separate more than a few pounds in a day. This great amount of labor made cotton so costly

* Mints are now located at Philadelphia, New Orleans, Carson City, Denver, and San Francisco.

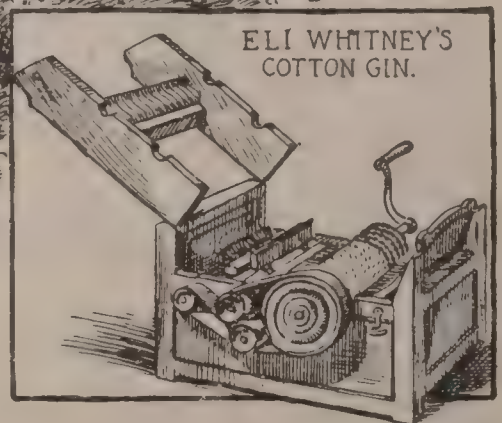
† The silver in a silver dollar weighed fifteen times as much as the gold in a gold dollar.

‡ From 1873 to 1875 there was a charge of one-fifth of one per cent. The government has also at times charged a fraction of one per cent for immediately exchanging gold coin for bullion. This is, however, in the nature of an interest charge for advancing the money before the bullion is made into coin.

that only the rich could afford to buy it. The demand was limited and the cultivation not extensive. Eli Whitney, a young college graduate, moved from Massachusetts to Georgia, and seeing the great need of a labor-saving machine, he set to work and invented the cotton gin, 1793. With this gin one person could separate several hundred times as much cotton from the seed as without it. The effect of this invention was marvelous. It revolutionized the industries of the South. Cotton became cheap, and the demand for it so great that the cultivation of it was extended over most of the southern states. This in turn made slave labor profitable, and helped to fix slavery



ELI WHITNEY.

A COTTON PLANT, COTTON FIELD, AND
THE WHITNEY COTTON GIN.

in the South until the Civil War. A great number of cotton mills were built in the North, and vast quantities of cotton were shipped there as well as to Europe.

Several years before, Hargraves had invented the spinning-jenny; Arkwright the water-frame, producing a number of threads instead of only one; and Cartwright, the power-loom. These machines worked the fibre into cloth after the seeds were removed. Whitney's great invention now furnished the cotton to keep these other machines busy, enriching North and South alike, and making cotton a common article of wearing apparel.

Foreign Affairs. Our relations with foreign countries were in a disturbed state. Trouble arose with four nations—Algiers, Spain, Great Britain, and France.

ALGIERS. Algiers was one of the Barbary States in northern Africa. Its people were pirates, and preyed upon the commercial ships in the Mediterranean Sea. If a nation refused to pay tribute-money, these pirates would seize its ships and hold them until a ransom was paid. Washington realized the great injustice of this barbaric practice, but as our nation was young and weak, rather than go to war to right the wrong he entered into a humiliating treaty with the Dey of Algiers, agreeing to pay \$1,000,000 for the release of crews already captured, and to pay \$60,000 annually for the use of the Mediterranean.

SPAIN. Spain held both banks of the lower Mississippi, and would not let American ships enter or leave the river without paying a tax. This was a hardship to farmers and traders west of the mountains, who floated their products down the river to be reloaded on ocean vessels and shipped to foreign markets.

Spain also still held the land north of the 31st parallel, which was ceded by Great Britain to the United States at the end of the war. These disputes, which threatened the peaceful relations of the two nations, were settled by the treaty of 1795, in which Spain—

1. Gave up all claims to territory north of the 31st parallel; and,
2. Granted free navigation of the Mississippi river to the United States, and also gave to American traders the right to

unload goods at New Orleans to await reshipment for other ports. •

GREAT BRITAIN. The British continued to hold Detroit, Oswego, Niagara, and other northwestern forts, which they had agreed to turn over to the United States at the close of the war. Their agents at these forts incited the Indians to make attacks on settlers.

Moreover, France, while at war with England, opened her West India trade to our ships. In a short time, many persons were engaged in carrying food and supplies to France; but the English, claiming that a neutral nation could not enjoy trade in time of war which it did not have in time of peace, sent out their men-of-war, which captured millions of dollars' worth of these cargoes.

In addition, Great Britain claimed the right to stop our ships on the sea and take from them sailors of British birth. Sometimes American citizens were seized and forced into British service. A cry went up over the country to avenge these insults, but Washington sent John Jay to England, with instructions to make, if possible, a peaceable settlement.

Jay's Treaty, 1795. This he succeeded in doing. By the terms of the treaty, the British agreed to evacuate all forts on the American side, to pay for unlawful seizure of vessels, and to allow our merchants to trade with the British West Indies. The British did not give up their alleged right to search our ships, nor did they stop seizing neutral goods. The treaty, though probably the best that could be secured at the time, left unsettled matters which ripened into open war a few years later.

FRANCE. While our people were launching the new republic under the Constitution, 1789, the people of France, burdened by misrule and heavy taxes, and inspired by the success of the American War for human rights, started a revolution against their monarch. The French republic was formed, 1792, and a reign of terror followed. Frightful scenes were enacted. Thousands of persons, among them the King and Queen, were guillotined. These struggles of the French for liberty disturbed the peace of the United States. This was greatly in-

tensified when war broke out in 1792 between France and Great Britain, which continued except for short intervals of peace, until the defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo (1815). Both nations made great efforts to drag the United States into the struggle, and succeeded in enlisting the sympathies of the American people,—some favoring England, but more supporting France. Washington believed that an alliance with either nation against the other would be disastrous. He accordingly proclaimed that the United States would not take sides in the conflict. This was the famous proclamation of neutrality, the beginning of our wise policy not to meddle with the politics of Europe.

Minister Genet. The people favoring France held that nation in grateful remembrance for the help given the Americans during the war for independence. The Treaty of Alliance, 1778, also pledged our aid to France in case of war with Great Britain. That war had come; so France sent a new minister, Genet, to secure the desired help. He landed at Charleston, South Carolina, before presenting his credentials as minister to President Washington, and fitted out two privateers to prey upon British commerce. This bustling, indiscreet man stirred the American sympathy for France to its depths. He was toasted and feasted, the neutrality proclamation was denounced, and Washington and his followers were accused of being ungrateful to France and favorable to kings.

The President, however, remained firm for neutrality. His cabinet claimed that the treaty of 1778 referred to defensive war, and not to war begun by France. Genet, in reckless zeal, appealed to the people to alter the course of the President, but they resented this insult to the government. Genet was recalled at the request of Washington, and a more discreet minister was sent by France in his place.

Indian Wars in the Northwest, 1790–1794. Colonists crossed the mountains in large numbers to open new homes in the Northwest Territory. The Indians claimed the lands. Encouraged by the British, they applied the midnight torch to the new log cabins, and tomahawked the settlers, sparing

not even women and children. The white man, in turn, shot down the red man wherever he saw him.

A force of men under Gen. Harmar, sent to protect the whites, was defeated. A second expedition of 2,000 men, under Gen. St. Clair, was ambushed and almost annihilated. Washington then sent "Mad Anthony" Wayne to the seat of trouble. He pursued and overtook the Indians (August, 1794), gave them a crushing defeat, near the present site of Toledo, Ohio, and forced them to make a treaty (1795), giving up all lands east of the Wabash river.

The Whisky Rebellion, 1794. An event occurred in the western part of Pennsylvania which tested the strength of the government under the new Constitution. The distillers were required to pay a tax, ranging in price from seven to eighteen cents for each gallon of whisky distilled.* In western Pennsylvania they refused to pay the tax. Revenue collectors were assaulted and maltreated by mobs and driven from the community. Washington issued two proclamations warning the insurgents to disperse, but they refused to obey, and threatened more violence. The President then called out a militia force of 2,500 men, which he placed under Governor Henry Lee, of Virginia, and sent to the rebellious district. The leaders fled at the approach of the army. Their followers became frightened and took an oath to support the government. The vigorous action of the President showed the power of the government to enforce the laws of the land and "to insure domestic tranquillity."

Washington's Retirement. Washington had been unanimously reelected, 1792, but had declined to be a candidate for a third term. For eight years he had safely guided the nation over many breakers, which threatened to destroy it. Before retiring from the presidency he issued a farewell address to the people, noted for its sound advice and profound wisdom. He warned them against party faction and foreign alliances. The Union, he said, "is the source of safety, prosperity, and liberty, and the nation has a right to the affections

* The internal revenue tax on whisky in 1911 was \$1.10 per gallon.

and devotion of the people." He who was "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen" retired to



THE HOME OF GEORGE AND MARTHA WASHINGTON AT MOUNT VERNON.

the peaceful shades of his home at Mt. Vernon, where he directed the management of his large estate, and continued to take an active interest in the affairs of the nation. He died from exposure to cold December 14, 1799.

Presidential Election.

There was no one upon whom all the people could unite for the next President. Each of the two

parties put forward its favorite candidate. The Democratic-Republicans favored Thomas Jefferson, while most of the Federalists inclined to John Adams. Party lines became for the first time clearly drawn. The people discussed candidates and issues in papers, pamphlets, and "broadside," and in public and private debate. Adams was elected President, and Jefferson Vice-President.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Give an account of the inauguration of Washington. What is meant by the President's Cabinet? By a Congress? What are some of the duties of Congress? The President is at the head of the executive department. What department of the government is Congress? What is the other department of government? Why did the government need a revenue? Discuss the fixing of the site of the Federal Capital? How did Hamilton advise that money should be raised? What was Hamilton's financial policy? What was the origin of the public debt? What is a tariff? An excise tax? What is a bank? What is a mint? Tell of Eli Whitney and the cotton gin. What was the effect of the cotton gin on cotton culture? On slavery? What was "Jay's Treaty," and why was it not popular? Discuss the French Revolution. The Whisky Insurrection. Its cause. Tell of Washington's Farewell Address and of his retirement.

Tell something of the following named persons, places, and dates:
George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Alexander Hamilton, Eli Whitney,
John Jay, Genet; New York City, Philadelphia, District of Columbia,
Algiers; 1789, 1791, 1793, 1794, 1795, 1800.

CHAPTER XVII.

ESTABLISHING A GOVERNMENT.

ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN ADAMS, 1797-1801.

Threatened War with France. Adams was inaugurated March 4, 1797. The country was in a peaceful and prosperous



JOHN ADAMS.

state, but our foreign relations were still in confusion. France was at this time governed by five men called the Directory. They declared Jay's Treaty a violation of our alliance treaty of 1778, and an insult to France. Our minister, Charles C. Pinckney, was sent home. French cruisers pursued and captured a large number of our merchant vessels. President Adams, anxious to avoid war, called an extra

session of Congress and sent John Marshall, Elbridge Gerry and Pinckney as special envoys to treat with France.

The X. Y. Z. Affair. After reaching Paris the Commissioners were approached by three agents of the Directory and informed that before they could be received officially, three things were necessary on the part of the United States:

1. To apologize for unfavorable expressions made about France by Adams.

2. To make a loan to the French republic.

3. To pay \$240,000 to the Directory (intended for the personal use of the Directors).

Pinckney, one of the American Commissioners, replied to this attempt to collect a bribe, "We have millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute." In reporting this affair to President Adams the Commissioners used the letters X. Y. Z. in-

stead of the names of the three French agents, hence the name, "X. Y. Z. affair."

No further effort was made to reconcile France to our policy of neutrality. "Millions for defense" was taken up by the American people, Federalists and Democratic-Republicans alike. The French treaties were suspended. French dress, flags, and customs, introduced by the navy in Washington's administration, were discarded. An army was organized, with Washington in command. The Department of the Navy was created, and the President directed to appoint a Secretary of the Navy, and to have twelve war-ships built. Merchantmen were authorized to arm themselves in self-defense, and in a short time our ships were scouring the seas around the French West Indies in search of French vessels, a number of which they destroyed or captured.

Realizing that France was facing a war with the United States, Talleyrand, of the French Directory, disavowed the insults of his agents, and promised to receive on friendly terms any envoys whom the President might send. In 1800 a treaty was made with Napoleon, who in the mean time had succeeded the Directory as ruler of France, and peace was restored.

The Alien and Sedition Laws. For several years leaders of the Democratic-Republican party had been abusing Congress, Washington, Adams, and the whole foreign policy of the Federalists. Among the severest critics were foreigners, many of whom in America belonged to the Democratic-Republican party, and some were supposed to be emissaries of France. Several were editors of leading newspapers which abused the President. To put an end to the slanderous attacks the Federalists passed four laws: the Alien Act, Sedition Act, Naturalization Act, and the Alien Enemies Act.

THE ALIEN ACT was passed by Congress, 1798, authorizing the President to send all aliens considered dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States out of the country and to imprison them if they refused to go. The President did not enforce this act.

THE SEDITION ACT imposed a fine and imprisonment on per-

sons who were convicted in court of writing, speaking or publishing any thing false, scandalous or malicious about Congress, the President or any government officer, or of conspiring to oppose the operation of government laws or to prevent an officer from performing his duty. Several persons were heavily fined under this act.

THE NATURALIZATION ACT.* Under this act no foreigner could become an American citizen until he had resided here fourteen years.

THE ALIEN ENEMIES ACT. The Alien Enemies Act (1798) provided that in case of war with another nation all male subjects of the hostile nation over fourteen years of age should be liable to expulsion from the United States.

The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions.† The Alien and Sedition laws were said to be violations of the Constitution, in that they “abridged the freedom of the press and speech.” They raised a storm of opposition among the Democratic-Republicans, who charged the Federalists with a desire to build up a monarchy, and with an attempt to crush political opponents by harsh laws. The most serious opposition came from Virginia and Kentucky. The legislatures of these states passed resolutions which declared: 1. That the Alien and Sedition laws were unconstitutional. 2. That the Constitution is merely an agreement or compact between states. 3. The Kentucky Resolutions went further, and said that nullification by the states of unlawful acts is the rightful remedy.

This doctrine is called “Nullification,” and means that a state judging any law passed by Congress to be unconstitutional, may declare such law null and void and refuse to obey it.

The First Federal Direct Tax, and Fries’s Rebellion, 1798. New taxes were laid on lands, houses and slaves, to meet the expenses of the proposed French war. The people

* A foreigner may now become a citizen after he has lived five years in the United States. He must file in court a declaration of his intention to become a citizen three years before he can get his final papers. Some foreigners live in the United States who never have become citizens. The Chinese by law are denied this privilege. (It would be well for the teacher to have a set of naturalization papers for class inspection.)

† Jefferson wrote the Kentucky Resolutions, and Madison, at the request of Jefferson, wrote the Virginia Resolutions.

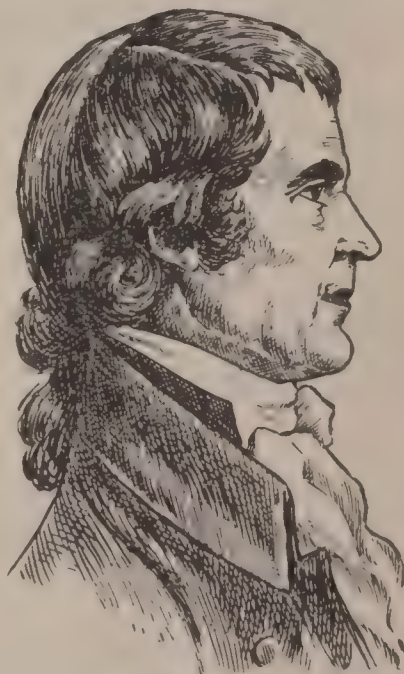
in eastern Pennsylvania, not understanding the purpose of the law, refused to pay the tax, and by violence drove the assessors away. For this the leaders were arrested, tried for treason, and sentenced to be hung; but they were afterwards pardoned. The taxes were collected, and a second time the government showed its ability to enforce the laws and insure "domestic tranquillity."

Presidential Election, 1800. Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr were the Democratic-Republican candidates in the election of 1800. John Adams and Charles C. Pinckney were the Federalist candidates. The campaign was exciting. Many unkind and bitter charges were made by each party against the other.

Jefferson and Burr each received 73 electoral votes; Adams, 65; and Pinckney, 64. As no one received a majority, the election fell to the House of Representatives (see Constitutional Amendments, Art. XII, p. 213), which elected Jefferson President on the thirty-sixth ballot. Burr became Vice-President, since the election of Jefferson for President left him with the next highest number of votes.

The method of voting for President and Vice-President was not satisfactory, so the twelfth amendment to the Constitution was adopted, 1804. (See Constitutional Amendments, p. 213).

John Marshall and the Federal Constitution. Before retiring from office Adams appointed John Marshall as chief justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, and he served in this capacity for thirty-five years. No wiser appointment has ever been made. Within a few years after Marshall assumed office a number of important cases* came before the



JOHN MARSHALL.

* One of these cases referred to the steam navigation of the rivers of the state of New York. The legislature of the state granted a monopoly to Robert Fulton and Robert Livingston, thus excluding all others from the right to use steamboats in the state. (See p. 260.) Marshall declared the act unconstitutional, as "the right to regulate commerce

court, which were to test the scope of the national Constitution in its relation to the states. Marshall and his associates, in clear, statesmanlike opinions, supported the national authority, as opposed to that of states. These decisions helped to give strength and dignity to the nation and have become an integral part of our system of government. So important was Marshall's service to the nation that it was said of him, "He found the Constitution paper, and made it power; he found it a skeleton, and clothed it with flesh and blood."

The Federalist Party.* The Federalist party performed a great work. It passed wise laws, established public credit, guided the nation under most trying circumstances in a course which kept it free from foreign alliances, and secured peace and prosperity at home. But its leaders, in their zeal to place themselves above criticism, passed the Alien and Sedition laws, which wrecked the party. The Democratic-Republican party took the reins of government, and for six administrations, or twenty-four years, continued to direct the affairs of the nation.

among the several states" belonged to Congress. No state could exclude vessels of other states from their waters.

Another case was the famous Dartmouth College case (1819). The Supreme Court annulled the act of the legislature of New Hampshire, which altered the charter of the College, contrary to the will of the trustees. The New Hampshire law was a violation of the constitutional provision forbidding states to impair the obligation of contracts.

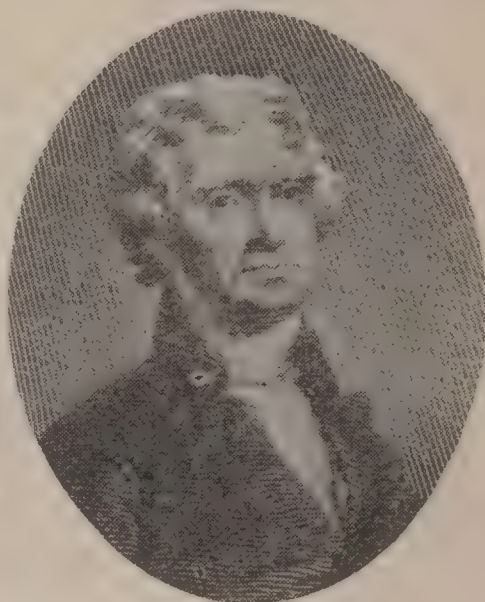
* The administration of John Quincy Adams is classed by some persons with those of the Democratic-Republicans. While Adams at one time claimed to belong to the Jeffersonian party, his policies while President were more nearly in accord with the Federalists and later the National-Republican party.

CHAPTER XVIII.

ESTABLISHING A GOVERNMENT.

THOMAS JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION, 1801-1809.

Jefferson's Views. Thomas Jefferson was a man of varied experience and of great ability. He was the author of the Declaration of Independence, had served in the Continental Congress, had been Governor of Virginia, and later became minister to France. He served as Secretary of State under Washington, and as Vice-President during Adams's administration. He was the first President to be inaugurated in the new capital, Washington, then but a small village. In dress and manners he differed greatly from Washington and Adams, both of whom thought that the President should surround his office with ceremony and dignity. Jefferson believed in simplicity, abolished the presidential receptions, and met all visitors as plainly and simply as in private life. He believed in giving the fullest rights to the common people, and bitterly opposed everything which, in his opinion, would tend to fasten the economic burdens and political evils of Europe upon America.



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

Reform Measures. The new administration began to practice rigid economy. It sold nearly all the ships of the navy, reduced the army to twenty-five hundred men, and dismissed many civil officers, making in all an annual saving of \$1,000,000. The annual revenue from customs, postoffices, and the sale of public lands amounted to \$10,000,000. The expenses

were about \$4,000,000. The surplus was used to pay the national debt, which was greatly reduced while Jefferson was President. Internal revenue duties were repealed. The naturalization period was changed from fourteen to five years, as it had been in Washington's administration. Jefferson pardoned all persons then confined under the Alien and Sedition laws, which had now expired.*

Emigration to the West. After the organization of the Northwest Territory and the subsequent defeat of the Indians by General Wayne, a steady stream of emigrants crossed the



A FLAT-BOAT GOING DOWN THE OHIO RIVER, PASSING CINCINNATI AS IT APPEARED IN 1810.

Alleghany Mountains and settled in the fertile lands beyond. Their furniture, provisions and agricultural implements were all carried on pack-horses. Cattle, hogs and sheep were driven ahead. The route over the mountains, which in places fol-

* The Alien Law, when passed, was limited to two years; and the Sedition Law to less than three years.

lowed narrow, winding paths, along ravines and gorges, was difficult and dangerous. At Pittsburg many of the emigrants took flatboats and went down the Ohio river to their destination. Many towns sprang up along the river and its branches. Marietta was founded, 1788. A cluster of log huts, built the same year farther down the Ohio, was two years later named Cincinnati.

The census of 1790 showed a population of 4,280 in the Northwest Territory. So rapid was the settlement that in two years the number had increased to over 45,000. During the same period the population in Kentucky had increased from 73,000 to 221,000.

The Cumberland National Pike. The great westward movement made a demand for roads across the mountains. Congress, in 1806, began the work of building such a road, beginning at Cumberland, Maryland, and extending westward. The road was made of a heavy layer of stone, covered with gravel or soil. By 1820 it was completed as far as Wheeling, West Virginia. At a later date the road was extended through Indianapolis to Vandalia, Illinois, and surveyed to St. Louis. In 1850 it was ceded to the states through which it passed.

Commerce on the Mississippi River. At this time there were no railroads. The settlers could not profitably carry their produce over the mountain roads to eastern markets; so the rivers became the highways of trade, and the Mississippi was the most important of all, as it was the outlet to the Gulf for the whole country west of the mountains. Flour, grain, whisky, bacon and other products were placed on flatboats and taken down to New Orleans, where the cargoes were sold or reloaded on ocean ships bound for other ports. Neighbors frequently combined to build a boat and ship a load of produce to market. The voyage occupied from three to six months. The return trip was sometimes made by boats from New Orleans to Baltimore, thence over the mountains several hundreds miles home; but more frequently, the return journey was made from New Orleans northward through the wilderness,—a thousand miles or more. Spain owned both sides of the lower Mississippi,

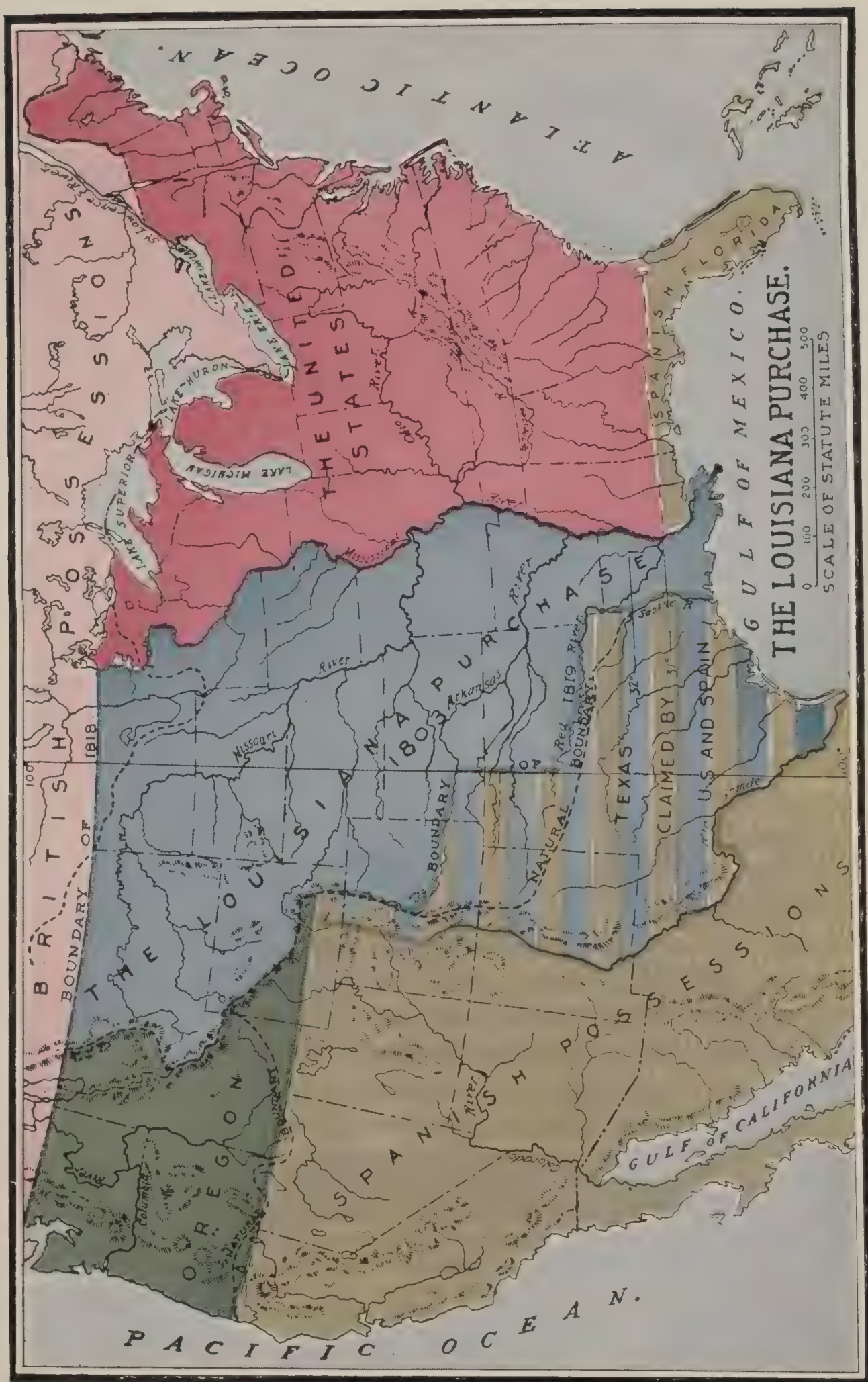
but by the Treaty of 1795 she gave to the United States the free navigation of the river, and the right to deposit merchandise at New Orleans. In 1802 the Spanish authorities at New Orleans, in violation of the treaty, withdrew the "right of deposit," and forbade American citizens from carrying on any commerce at New Orleans. The closing of the Mississippi meant commercial ruin to the region west of the Alleghanies. Great was the indignation of the people when they heard of Spain's action. They urged Jefferson to get control of New Orleans and all lands on the east bank to the mouth of the river, and threatened to seize the territory if he did not do so.

Louisiana Ceded to France, 1800. Napoleon, the ambitious ruler of France, planned to reestablish French power in America. He persuaded Spain to cede Louisiana back to France, which was done by secret treaty in 1800.* The transfer of the territory by Spain to France was not then made, and Louisiana remained under the Spanish flag until a few days before it was turned over to the United States.

Louisiana Purchased of France, 1803. News reached Jefferson in April, 1802, that Spain had ceded Louisiana to France, and that Napoleon was preparing to send troops to hold it. The transfer from a weak to a strong nation was not pleasing to our government. This fact, combined with the demand of the western settlers that New Orleans be seized, induced Jefferson to negotiate for the purchase of New Orleans and West Florida. James Monroe was sent to aid Livingston, our minister to France, and Pinckney was sent to assist our minister to Spain, which claimed West Florida. The time was favorable.

Napoleon was about to begin war with England. He feared that the English with their strong navy would take Louisiana. Rather than have it fall into the hands of an enemy, he concluded to sell it to a friend. He also needed money, and when approached about the sale of New Orleans, he offered to sell the entire province of Louisiana for \$15,000,000. The purchase was made, 1803. The United States paid \$11,250,000

* Treaty of San Ildefonso.



THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE.

SCALE OF STATUTE MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500

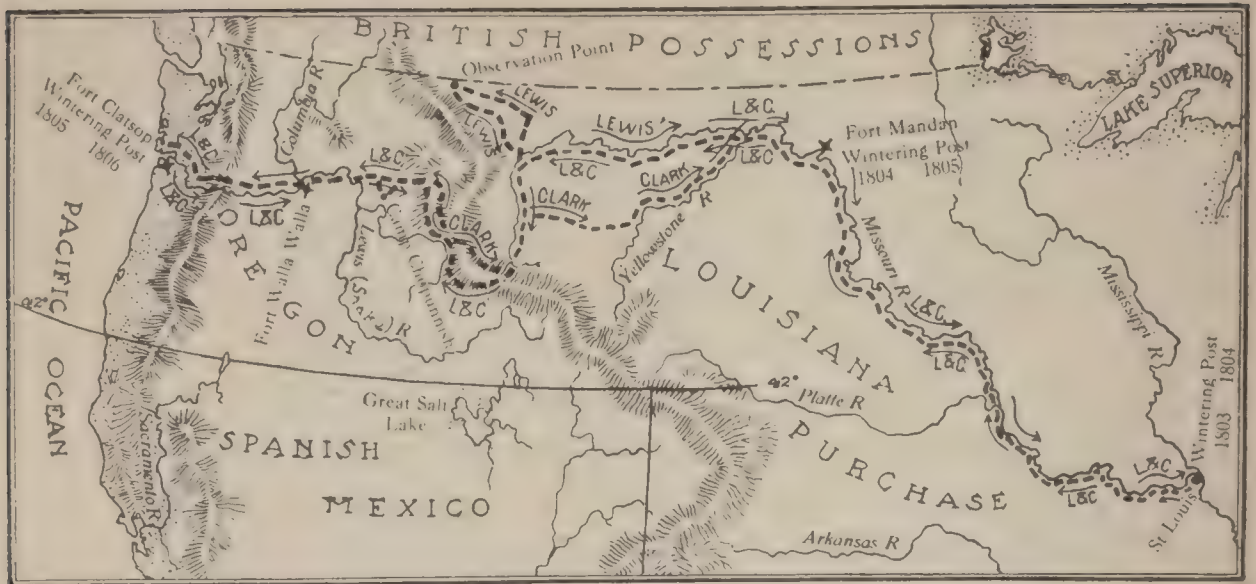
in bonds to France, and \$3,750,000 to American citizens as claims due them from France for injury done to our commerce.

The purchase of Louisiana was the greatest event in Jefferson's administration. It more than doubled our territory, gave us control of the Mississippi, and opened the way for acquiring the vast regions to the Pacific. Louisiana extended from the Mississippi (the only definite boundary) on the east to the Rocky Mountains on the west, and from Canada on the north to Spanish Mexico on the south, and included New Orleans on the east bank of the river. The northern boundary was fixed definitely, 1819, from the northwest corner of the Lake of the Woods, south to the 49th parallel, thence west to the Rocky Mountains. The United States claimed Texas as a part of Louisiana, but Spain said it was part of Spanish Mexico. The question was settled, 1819, by the Florida Treaty,* in which the United States gave up her claim to Texas and Spain gave up her claim to the Oregon Country. The transfer of Louisiana was made, December 20, 1803.† On that day the French flag was lowered, the stars and stripes raised, and the territory became a part of the United States.

Lewis and Clark Expedition, 1804–1806. Jefferson, wishing to learn more about the newly acquired territory and the country beyond the Rocky Mountains, induced Congress to vote money for fitting out an exploring party. It was led by William Clark and Meriwether Lewis, and set out from St. Louis in May, 1804. The explorers ascended the Missouri river to its source, then crossed the mountains, descended a stream to the Snake river, and went down the Snake and Columbia to the Pacific Ocean. They spent the winter of 1805–06 at the mouth of the Columbia, and in the spring began the return trip, arriving at St. Louis September 26, 1806, after traveling over 8,000 miles.

* By the Florida Treaty, the boundary between the United States and Spanish Mexico was fixed along the Sabine river, from its mouth to the 32nd parallel; thence due north to the Red river; westward along the Red river to the 100th meridian; thence due north to the Arkansas river; along the Arkansas river to its source; thence north to the 42nd parallel; thence west to the Pacific.

† Spain transferred Louisiana to France, November 30, 1803. The French held nominal possession for twenty days and then transferred it to the United States.



THE LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION, 1804-1806.

The expedition, besides furnishing information about the country, its wealth and people, helped to establish our claim to the Oregon Country.

The Oregon Country. In 1792 Captain Gray, of Boston, while trading with the Indians of the Northwest, discovered a large river which he named the Columbia, in honor of his ship. In early days the nation which made the discovery of a river was entitled to the land drained by it. Soon after this, John Jacob Astor, of New York, founded the American Fur Company, which made preparations to establish a line of trading-posts along the Missouri and Columbia rivers from St. Louis to the Pacific. In 1811 this company built a trading-post at the mouth of the Columbia, and named it Astoria.

Four nations laid claim to this region—Spain, Russia, England, and the United States. The discovery of the Columbia by Gray, the Lewis and Clark exploration of the territory drained by it, and the planting of the first permanent settlement at Astoria, established our rights to the Oregon Country.

War with the Barbary States. Trouble again broke out in 1801 with the Barbary States (Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Morocco). The tribute-money paid to Algiers encouraged the other pirate States to demand a like tribute. Tripoli, especially, became so insolent that Jefferson sent a fleet of war vessels to protect our interests. After some spirited fighting, these

states were forced to make a treaty (1805), agreeing not to interfere with American commerce in the Mediterranean. But these pirates again began depredations when we were at war with England (1812-1814). At the close of the war, Commodore Decatur, with a fleet of ten ships, compelled the Dey of Algiers to sign a treaty, agreeing to pay for all seizures made since the last treaty, and promising not to molest our commerce in the future.

Jefferson's Re-election. Jefferson was reëlected, 1804, by a large majority. George Clinton was chosen Vice-President. Charles Pinckney was the candidate of the Federalists, but received only fourteen electoral votes.

Death of Hamilton. Aaron Burr, while still Vice-President, became a candidate for Governor of New York. He and Hamilton had been political enemies for some time. Hamilton again threw his influence against Burr, and succeeded in defeating him. Embittered at Hamilton, Burr challenged him to a duel, and Hamilton, believing, in accordance with the custom of the time, that he could not honorably decline the challenge, accepted it. They met on the banks of the Hudson, opposite New York City. At the first shot Hamilton fell, mortally wounded, upon the field where two years before his oldest son lost his life in a duel defending the honor of his father. The tragic death created intense excitement, aroused public opinion against the brutal practice of settling disputes with pistol or sword, and led to the enactment of laws making dueling a crime, subject to severe punishment. Burr, fearing the wrath of the people, fled for safety.

Burr's Conspiracy. Later, Burr formed a secret expedition, apparently with the hope of establishing an empire in the West, with New Orleans as the capital, and himself the ruler. He probably hoped to conquer Spanish Mexico and get the states west of the mountains to join in forming a new nation. He was arrested and tried for treason; but was acquitted for lack of legal evidence. Years later he died in New York City, in poverty and disgrace.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Tell of the troubles with France. What was the X. Y. Z. affair? What was the Alien Act? The Sedition Act? The Naturalization Act? What were the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions? What was the doctrine of Nullification? Tell of Fries's Rebellion. What was the great work of John Marshall? Who was elected President to succeed Adams? What party came into power?

Discuss Jefferson's policy. What attracted people to the Northwest Territory? Why did the Mississippi become a trade route? What goods were carried? What was the extent of the Louisiana Territory?* Why did Napoleon sell Louisiana to the United States? What benefit resulted to the United States? Tell of the Lewis and Clark expedition. Of what benefit was it? What was the National Pike?

Tell something of the following named persons, places, and dates: C. C. Pinckney, John Marshall, Napoleon, Captain Gray, Aaron Burr; New Orleans, West Florida, Barbary States; 1798, 1803, 1804-1806.

Color an outline map showing the extent of the Louisiana Purchase. Make an outline of the chapter.

* The pupil should note that the extent of Louisiana after 1783 was entirely different from that of French Louisiana.

CHAPTER XIX.

A STRUGGLE FOR COMMERCIAL FREEDOM.

EVENTS LEADING TO THE WAR OF 1812.

American Commerce, and War between France and England. Jefferson's second administration was beset with troublous relations with France and England. After a year of peace, war again broke out (1803) between these nations. In their efforts to punish each other, they paid no attention to the rights of neutral countries. Nation after nation was drawn into the conflict. England was supreme on the sea, and had destroyed the commerce of France and her allies. The United States was quick to profit by this condition. Soon, American ships swarmed the seas, carrying the products of every clime. Trade expanded. Tariff receipts rose in a year from \$14,000,000 to \$20,000,000, and our merchants were growing rich. According to Great Britain's ideas of neutrality, the United States could not carry goods directly between France and the French colonies. To evade this restriction, our merchants brought the cargoes of merchandise to the United States, unloaded, and then reshipped the goods to French ports.

England decided, in 1805, that goods from French colonies carried in American ships could be seized by English ships, even though they had first been landed in the United States; and, without warning, began to take these cargoes as prizes. Her conduct became very arrogant after the British victory over the French at Trafalgar. She even stationed men-of-war outside our ports, to seize our vessels as they came and went. In six months, more than one hundred of our ships were taken and a thousand seamen impressed.

British Orders in Council, and Napoleon's Decrees, 1806 and 1807. Napoleon was in control of a large part of Europe, and tried to prevent British trade on the continent.

In turn, England issued her *First Order in Council*, 1806, which put the coast of Europe under blockade from Brest, France, to the mouth of the Elbe river. Napoleon, in reply, issued the *Berlin Decree*, which blockaded the British Islands. Great Britain struck another blow by issuing the *Second Order in Council*, January, 1807, which prohibited all trade with France and her allies, unless first licensed by England.

Napoleon retaliated with the *Milan Decree*, which prohibited all trade with England and her possessions, and declared any ship subject to capture which took out a British license.

These conflicting orders and decrees placed the commerce of the United States in desperate straits. Our vessels, bound for British ports, were liable to be captured by the French. Those bound for the ports of France or her allies were liable to be captured by the British. As a result, a large number of our vessels were seized and our commerce was practically destroyed.

Impressment of American Seamen. Another cause for complaint was the impressment of American seamen. Great Britain claimed the right to stop American vessels on the high seas, and take from them any British subjects found among the crew. The higher wages paid to American seamen led hundreds to desert the British service and join our merchant marine. "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman" was the stand taken by Great Britain; so she proceeded to seize all British sailors found on American ships. Often, native Americans were seized and pressed into British service.

The Chesapeake and Leopard Affair. In June, 1807, the American frigate *Chesapeake* was overtaken off the coast of Virginia by the British frigate *Leopard*. The British commander demanded the surrender of several men serving on the *Chesapeake*. When the demand was not obeyed, the *Leopard* opened fire, killing three men and wounding eighteen. The four alleged deserters were then seized and taken on board the *Leopard*. Three proved to be American citizens, and the fourth, an actual deserter, was hanged by the British officers.

The smoldering wrath of the American people against British injustice now leaped into flame. *Reparation for the past, se-*

curity for the future, and war, if necessary, to obtain them, became the cry.

Jefferson knew the country was not prepared for war, yet he could not let such an insult pass without some action. He issued a proclamation forbidding British cruisers from entering American ports, and called a special session of Congress to consider the situation.

Jefferson's Efforts to Keep Out of War. Three ways were open to Jefferson to meet the troubles at hand: war, diplomacy, or retaliatory legislation. Jefferson was a man of peace, and believed better results would be accomplished by peaceful measures. He dismissed all thought of war, and sent James Monroe and William Pinckney to treat with England. They succeeded in negotiating a treaty, but it was so unsatisfactory that Jefferson did not submit it to the Senate. The only peaceful course left was to pass laws that would be injurious to France and England, and force them to some just settlement. In accordance with this plan, three laws were passed: The Non-Importation Act, 1806; The Embargo Act, 1807; and The Non-Intercourse Act, 1809.

THE NON-IMPORTATION ACT. The Non-Importation Act passed by Congress, April 16, 1806, prohibited the importation of certain kinds of British goods. It was to go into effect at the will of the President. After England failed to give satisfaction for the Chesapeake affair, he put the act in force, December, 1807.

EMBARGO ACT. Fearing that the Non-Importation Act would not accomplish the desired purpose, Congress, on the advice of Jefferson, passed the Embargo Act, which prohibited all our vessels from sailing to foreign ports, and excluded foreign vessels from American ports. The act did more harm to America than it did to England and France. Farmers and planters suffered greatly because they could not export their produce. Foreign commerce was absolutely stopped, home trade checked, and men thrown out of employment. There was great general depression and great dissatisfaction. The people began to evade the law. Some, in New England, even

threatened that their section would secede from the Union. Probably the only good derived from the law was the fact that it gave a great impulse to home manufactures.

THE NON-INTERCOURSE ACT, 1809. Congress, yielding to the storm of protests, repealed the Embargo Act, and passed a Non-Intercourse Act, 1809. This forbade all American trade with Great Britain and France and with their respective colonies, but gave our ships liberty to trade with the rest of the world. A clause authorized the President to suspend the law, with respect to either France or England, if either should repeal its obnoxious orders or decrees.

Presidential Election, 1808. In the Presidential election, James Madison, of Virginia, was chosen President, and George Clinton, of New York, Vice-President.

Charles C. Pinckney, of South Carolina, and Rufus King, of New York, were the candidates of the Federalist party. Madison received 122 electoral votes out of a total of 176.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MADISON, 1809-1817.

Madison's Efforts to Settle Trouble. James Madison became President, March 4, 1809. He had been Secretary of State during Jefferson's two administrations, and was fully informed regarding our troubles with England and France. He wished to continue Jefferson's policy of "economy at home and peace abroad." Like Jefferson, he would not take vigorous measures against the outrageous conduct of England and France, both of whom deserved severe punishment. He made another effort to get these countries to respect our rights at sea, apparently with brilliant success. The British



JAMES MADISON.

minister at Washington promised (April, 1809) that the Orders in Council would be withdrawn. The people were delighted. Hundreds of American vessels set sail for Europe, laden with

grain and other products. Farmers, merchants, ship-owners and all looked forward to the prosperous days when dollars would come rolling into their pockets. But England declared that her minister had acted without authority, and refused to carry out his promise. Our trade stopped as suddenly as it began, and the joy of the people gave way to gloom and resentment.

The Macon Bill.* May 1, 1810. Non-importation, the Embargo, and Non-Intercourse, all had failed. Congress in desperation now repealed the Non-Intercourse Act, and passed the Macon Bill. It restored trade with France and England, and promised that if either nation would remove its decrees or orders, the United States would revive non-intercourse against the other nation, providing that nation did not also withdraw its decrees or orders within three months.

Napoleon's Deception. When Napoleon heard of the Macon Bill, he assured the United States that the Berlin and Milan Decrees would be recalled, November 1, 1810. England did not recall her orders, so trade was resumed with France.

Great fleets of merchant vessels were soon on their way to French ports. When once at the mercy of France, every American vessel was seized by order of Napoleon, and \$10,000,000 worth of American property stolen. He had not recalled his decrees, but only pretended to do so in order that he might be able to seize more supplies for his armies.

Drifting Towards War. Thus the government had been drifting aimlessly with the hope that something might happen to deliver it from the outrages heaped upon it by England and France. Our ports had been patrolled, our commerce destroyed, 1,500 vessels seized, and 6,000 sailors had been impressed into the British service. Legislation and treaty alike had failed. Both countries had given abundant cause for war, but England had created the bitterest feeling of resentment by her insolence in asserting the right to search our vessels and impress our seamen. In 1811 our minister to England was recalled. Then England became somewhat alarmed, and of-

* Named after Macon, the Congressman who introduced the bill.

ferred to make amends for the *Chesapeake* affair, which had occurred four years before. The time for peaceful settlement, however, was over. In the fall elections (1810) a large number of new men were elected to Congress, demanding "free trade and sailors' rights"; among them were Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun, and many others, all eager for war.

Indian Warfare.—DEFEAT OF THE INDIANS AT TIPPECANOE, 1811. William Henry Harrison, governor of the Northwest Territory, purchased 3,000,000 acres of land from the Indian tribes for the government. Tecumseh, chief of the Shawnees, opposed the sale, and threatened death to the chiefs who made it. He tried to organize a confederacy of all the tribes in the Northwest to make a final effort to drive the whites back. The lives of the frontier settlers were unsafe. General Harrison was sent with an army to look after their interests. When within a few miles of the Indian village on the Tippecanoe river, Indiana, the army was attacked before break of day, November 7, 1811. The Indians were defeated, their town was burned, Tecumseh and his survivors fled to Canada, and in the war that followed assisted the British.

HORSESHOE BEND. Two years later the Creek Indians in Alabama and Georgia, encouraged by the British, took up arms against the whites. They captured Fort Mimms, murdering 400 men, women and children (1813). Andrew Jackson was sent against them, and completely defeated them at Horseshoe Bend (March 29, 1814). More than 600 of their braves were slain. The rest were glad to secure peace.

The President and "Little Belt," 1811. The British war vessel *Guerriere* while watching for our merchant vessels off the coast of New York, captured a richly laden vessel bound for France, took from it a young man from Maine and impressed him into British service. Captain Rogers, in command of the *President*, was sent to demand the release of the man. He hailed the British ship *Little Belt*, supposing it to be the *Guerriere*, and received a shot in reply. A battle followed, in which the British ship was disabled and thirty-two men killed or wounded.

War Declared, June 18, 1812. The Federalists opposed the war and the Democratic-Republicans favored it. The former largely represented New England and the North, where the burden of the war would fall heaviest; the latter were stronger in the West and the South, representing largely the agricultural classes. The Federalists believed that the nation was not prepared for war, and that war would ruin commerce and business. The Democratic-Republicans, who had a large majority in Congress, thought that by invading Canada they would force England (which was still at war with France) into honorable terms of peace with the United States. Congress accordingly declared war against Great Britain, June 18,* 1812, and voted to raise an army of 25,000 regular troops, 50,000 volunteers, and 100,000 militia.

THE WAR OF 1812.

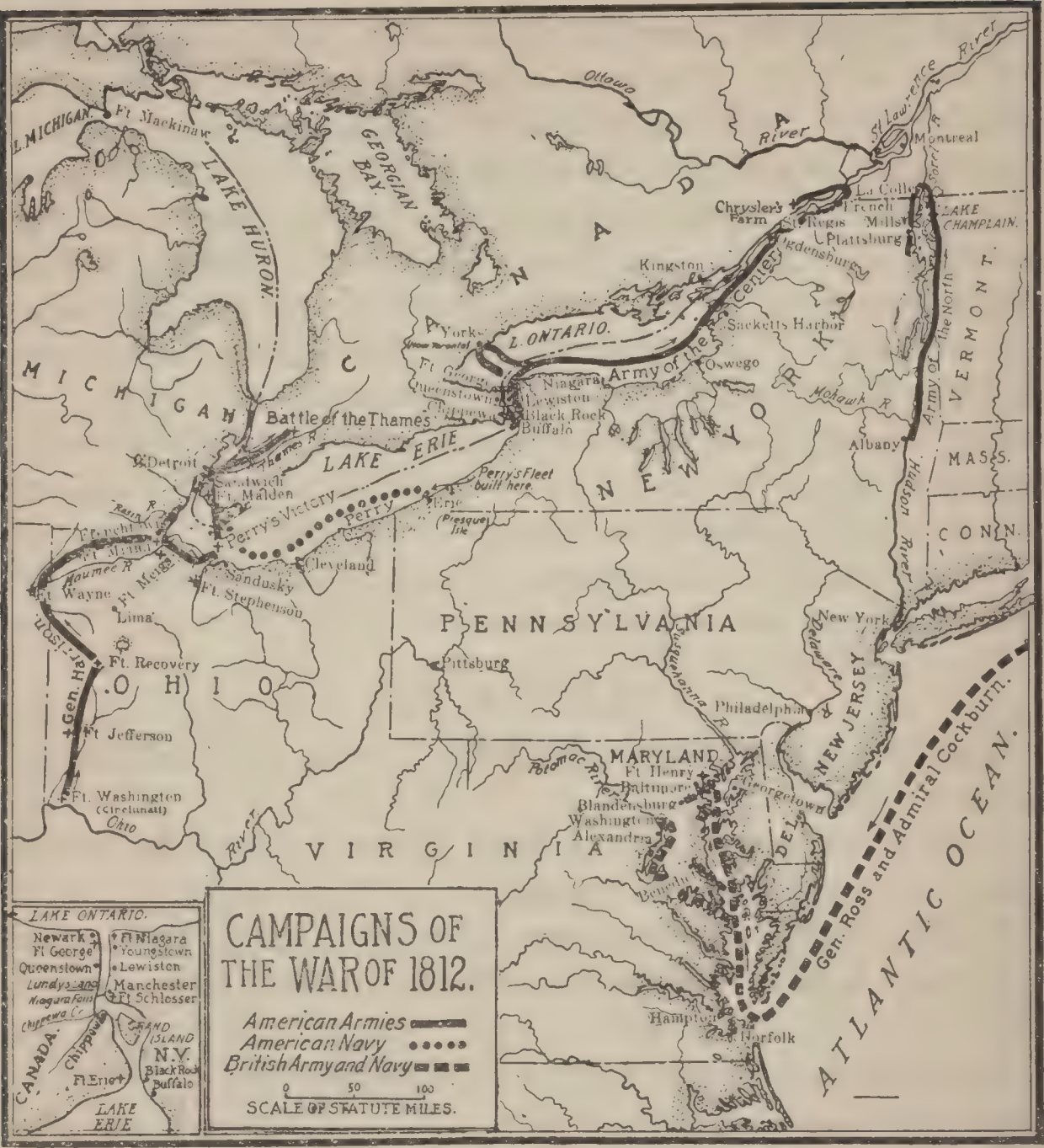
Review of the Causes of the War. The causes of the war of 1812 were :

1. England insisted on the right to search American vessels and to impress American seamen.
2. The English government under her Orders in Council captured our merchant vessels when trading with France or her allies.
3. England blockaded our ports for the purpose of searching our vessels.
4. British subjects in the Northwest incited the Indians to attack the American settlers.

Plan of the War. The Americans planned to invade Canada and strike a telling blow before England could get a fleet and army to America. Three different armies were formed for the invasion of Canada by three different routes: The Army of the West to go by way of Detroit; the Army of the Center to go by way of the Niagara river; and the Army of the North to go by way of Lake Champlain.

The British planned to repel the invasion; to move an army

* Two days before, June 16th, the English minister announced that the Orders in Council would be withdrawn.



Give an account of events in the West; in the Center; in the region of Lake Champlain; around Washington; at New Orleans; and on the sea.

up Lake Champlain and separate the New England states from the rest; and to take the capital and other places on the Atlantic coast.

The Army of the West. General William Hull was sent from Urbana, Ohio, with an army to the defense of Detroit. A British force in command of General Brock was stationed at Fort Malden, and marched with some Indians to attack Detroit. Hull, when summoned to surrender, hung out the white flag and surrendered Detroit and his 2,000 men (Aug.

16, 1812), without firing a shot and without being attacked.* Mackinac and Fort Dearborn (now Chicago) also fell into the hands of the enemy.

General William Henry Harrison in Command. General Harrison organized a new army, and marched from Fort Washington (now Cincinnati) through Fort Wayne to the northwest in the dead of winter, to recover Detroit. General Winchester went in advance to Frenchtown, on the Raisin river. Here he was defeated and forced to surrender (January, 1813). All prisoners who could walk were taken to Fort Malden, but the sick and wounded were left behind. The Indians then burned the village and tomahawked and burned the helpless captives. The people were horrified at the atrocious crime. "Remember the Raisin!" became the battle-cry of the western army.

Perry's Victory on Lake Erie, Sept. 10, 1813. The United States concluded to build a fleet on Lake Erie, to op-



BATTLE ON LAKE ERIE.

During the battle Perry's flagship, the *Lawrence*, was disabled. Dropping into a small boat and exposed to the fire of the British, Perry was rowed to the *Niagara*. After hoisting his emblem, he pierced the enemy's line with his new flag-ship, and won a signal victory

* General Hull was tried by a court of army officers, found guilty of treason, and sentenced to be hung. He was pardoned by President Madison because of his valiant service in the Revolution.

pose the British fleet then in control of that lake. Oliver H. Perry was put in command. He set to work at Presque Isle (now Erie), and in a few months had a fleet of nine vessels, carrying fifty-four guns. The British fleet of six vessels with sixty-three guns was in command of Commodore Barclay, who had served with Nelson at Trafalgar. The two fleets met, September 10, 1813, and after three hours of terrific fighting the British flag was hauled down, and the fleet surrendered. It was a brilliant victory.* Perry, taking the back of an old letter, penned a message to General Harrison in words that have become as famous as the battle itself: "We have met the enemy and they are ours—two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop."

Battle on the Thames, Oct. 5, 1813. General Harrison, after receiving reinforcements, was met at Sandusky by Perry's fleet and taken across Lake Erie. Proctor fled from Fort Malden, pursued by Harrison, who overtook him and his Indian allies on the Thames river, where the British were completely defeated, October 5, 1813, and Tecumseh killed. Proctor escaped, but his troops surrendered. All lost territory was regained, and part of Canada taken.

The Army of the Center. General Van Rensselaer, in command of an American force, was defeated at Queenstown Heights by a force under General Brock, who came to the Niagara region after the capture of Detroit. General Dearborn succeeded Van Rensselaer. With the assistance of the fleet, he took York (now Toronto), the capital of Canada, but afterward abandoned it. Fort George was also taken. The British attacked Sackett's Harbor, which was bravely and successfully defended by General Brown.

General Wilkinson superseded Dearborn, July, 1813, and planned to capture Montreal. He was to drop down the St. Lawrence, while General Hampton, who was encamped at Plattsburg on Lake Champlain with 4,000 men, was to march

* The British centered their fire on Perry's flagship, the *Lawrence*, disabling it, and killing or wounding all but eight men. British victory seemed certain. Most men would have surrendered, but Perry, with flag in arm, jumped into a boat, and was rowed amid a storm of shot to the *Niagara*, and again led in the attack.

north into Canada and join him at St. Regis. The combined forces were to take Montreal. Hampton was jealous of Wilkinson, and did not coöperate; so the campaign, which promised much, ended in failure. Hampton returned to Plattsburg; and Wilkinson, after being defeated by a British force at Chrysler's Farm, went into winter quarters at French Mills.

In 1814 General Jacob Brown and Colonel Winfield Scott won victories at Chippewa and Lundy's Lane. Fort Erie also fell. The British, however, burned Black Rock and Buffalo on the American side.

The Navy in the War of 1812. At the opening of the war our navy was a subject of English ridicule. We had sixteen ships and a number of worthless war-vessels. England was mistress of the sea, with over one thousand vessels afloat. She laughed at our "fir-built things with a piece of striped bunting at their mastheads." She had defeated the allied fleets of France and Spain, and looked with contempt at our insignificant navy. Although England needed most of her vessels to look after her interests in Europe, she had about seventy-five of them doing blockade work along our coasts when the war began.

During the year 1812 we had at least four well-fought engagements with the British war vessels, in all of which the Americans were victorious.

The American frigate *Constitution*, under Isaac Hull, captured the British frigate *Guerriere*; the *Wasp* captured the *Frolic*; the United States captured the *Macedonian*; and the *Constitution* destroyed the *Java*.

EFFECT. These were brilliant victories, and filled the American heart with joy and hope. England heard the news with amazement and chagrin. Again and again the most powerful nations of Europe had built navies, only to have them destroyed by the fleets of England. To have an infant nation across the Atlantic commit such destruction was humiliating. In six months the Americans had captured more British vessels than the French had done in many years. The British had sufficient ships to destroy our whole navy at short notice if

they had been combined into a fleet. Our officers, however, sailed the seas and watched for chances to fight single vessels on equal terms, and generally were victorious.

The Chesapeake and Other Engagements. During the years 1813 and 1814 there were a number of naval battles, some victories and some defeats for our ambitious little navy. The first serious defeat was that of the *Chesapeake*, June 1, 1813, by the British frigate *Shannon*. The *Chesapeake*, commanded by Captain James Lawrence, lay at anchor in Boston harbor, and in response to a challenge went out to meet the *Shannon*. After a short, fierce battle the *Chesapeake* was defeated and Lawrence killed. As his men were carrying him down the hatchway, he gave his last heroic order, "Don't give up the ship," which became a battle-cry for the American sailors.

After the defeat of Napoleon the British brought a large number of vessels (in 1814) to America, and blockaded our coast from Maine to Florida, shutting up most of our ships in the harbors.

Privateers.* American privateers roved over the seas in search of British merchant vessels, capturing during the war more than a thousand of them. The privateers were small, swift-sailing vessels, and able to escape from the heavy men-of-war. The merchant vessels usually went in fleets, under convoy of a man-of-war, but the privateers would frequently slip in and carry off a prize.

The Army of the North. After Hampton's failure to co-operate with General Wilkinson, he was superseded by General Macomb (1814), whose army lay at Plattsburg. Near by was a fleet of fourteen vessels under Commodore Macdonough. Sir George Prevost led a British army of 12,000 men up the lake for an invasion of New York. With him was Commodore George Downie, in command of a large fleet. They made a combined attack on the American fleet (September 11, 1814), expecting an easy victory; but in less than three hours the

* Privateers are vessels fitted up by individuals to whom a license, called "letters of marque and reprisal," has been given by the President, which authorizes them, in time of war, to go on the "high seas" and capture vessels of the enemy.

British fleet was defeated, Downie was killed, and General Prevost was preparing to beat a hasty retreat to Canada.

Washington Captured. In the summer of 1814 a large British fleet in command of Admiral Cockburn sailed up Chesapeake Bay, carrying 4,000 troops under General Ross, to attack Washington, the capital. An army, hastily collected at Bladensburg, was defeated. The President and other officials fled in panic, while the British army marched into Washington, August 24, 1814. They burned the Capitol, the White House, Department buildings, committed other acts of vandalism, and then sailed to Baltimore. Their fleet bombarded Fort McHenry while their troops marched to attack the city. General Ross was killed, however, and his troops after being repulsed were soon taken to join an expedition against the South.

Battle of New Orleans, January 8, 1815. The British wished to get possession of New Orleans, so as to be able to control the Mississippi river and the Louisiana Territory. For this purpose they organized a fleet of fifty of the finest ships in the English navy at Jamaica, carrying 12,000 veteran soldiers under General Pakenham. The brave and intrepid Andrew Jackson was put in command at New Orleans. He collected an army of 6,000 riflemen from Kentucky, Tennessee and surrounding country, built embankments, of sand and cotton-bales, extending from the river to the swamp, and there awaited the approach of the enemy. On January 8th, 1815, Pakenham assailed the works twice, but each time he was driven back with frightful loss by the unerring fire of the sharpshooters. Never before had such a defeat been administered to a British army. Their loss was over 2,000 killed and wounded. General Pakenham was among the dead. Jackson's loss was eight killed and thirteen wounded.

Without the telegraph, telephone, cable, or railroad, communication in those days was slow. News of the victory did not reach Washington until February 4, 1815, nearly two weeks after the treaty of peace was concluded.

The Treaty of Ghent, 1814. Both nations desired peace, and had already sent commissioners to Ghent, Belgium, where

a treaty of peace was signed, December 24, 1814. They were tired of the conflict and agreed to stop fighting, but no mention was made in the treaty of the "right of search and of impressment of seamen," or of "free trade and sailors' rights," the principal causes of the war. It was tacitly understood, however, that England would in the future respect our rights on the sea. All captured territory was restored, and boundaries were fixed as they had been before the war. The people of both England and America were delighted to hear that the end of the struggle had come.

Hartford Convention, 1814. The Federalists of New England were at the outset opposed to the war, and this feeling increased as the war progressed. Their business was depressed and their commerce destroyed. Delegates from the New England States held a convention at Hartford, Connecticut, in December, 1814, for the purpose of opposing the war. Its sessions were secret, and its proceedings were never fully made public; but portions of the report of the convention were recommendations to the states to adopt measures which would oppose the enforcement of certain acts of Congress, relative to the enlistment of men. This was again the doctrine of States' Rights, in effect similar to the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions. The action of the convention was, to say the least, unpatriotic. Many persons believed that the delegates were planning to have New England leave the Union, but as peace soon returned, nothing more was done. The unwise course of the convention helped to complete the downfall of the Federalist party.

Results of the War.

1. The national debt was increased \$98,000,000.
2. Commerce was destroyed and business greatly injured.
3. Our navy gained the respect of the nations of Europe, and won for American ships the right to sail the seas without being disturbed.
4. The war led Americans, who were deprived of the manufactured goods of Europe, to build mills and factories for themselves.

State Banks and Financial Distress. At the close of the

war our finances were in a bad condition. All banks excepting those in New England had suspended specie payment (no longer gave gold or silver in exchange for paper money).

The charter of the United States Bank had expired, 1811, and Congress would not renew it. A large number of state banks sprang up all over the country, hoping to get the business formerly done by the United States Bank. The paper money issued by these banks had very much depreciated, and all business suffered greatly. The small silver coins were withdrawn from circulation with the rest of the specie. This caused inconvenience in making change, and led merchants and business firms to issue tickets to take the place of the small coins.

Second United States Bank, 1816. To remedy these evils Congress chartered the second United States Bank, 1816, at Philadelphia, for twenty years, with a capital of \$35,000,000. The government took one-fifth of the stock. The bank could establish branch banks in various cities, and issue paper money which the government would receive at face value for taxes, lands, and all debts.

Presidential Election, 1816. The questions upon which the two parties had differed were settled or in a large measure disposed of by the war, so there were no well-defined issues in the campaign.

The Hartford Convention and the opposition to the war by some of the Federalists brought their party into discredit. When the election came, the Democratic-Republicans elected their candidate, James Monroe, by a very large majority. Daniel D. Tompkins was chosen Vice-President. Rufus King, the Federalist candidate for President, received only thirty-four electoral votes out of 217.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

How did the British Orders in Council and Napoleon's Decrees affect the United States? What three measures did Congress pass to protect our interests? What is meant by the British right of search and impressment of seamen? Tell of the Chesapeake Affair. What efforts were made by President Madison to prevent war? What did "Free Trade and Sailors'

Rights" mean? Tell of the growth of the American navy. Why did the Federalist party oppose the war with England? Give the causes of the War of 1812. Name three prominent young Americans of this period. What was the effect of the loss of Detroit? Give the chief events of the war by campaigns. Tell of the battle of Lake Erie. Of the wanton attack upon Washington. What was the Hartford Convention? Tell of the Battle of New Orleans. What were the terms of the treaty of peace? Date? Did the war benefit America? What questions were settled by the war?

CHAPTER XX.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE WEST AND MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION.

Migration West. Great as was the migration to the West before the war of 1812, it became immensely greater after that conflict. The highways of travel were literally filled with emigrant trains, moving westward. Over 16,000 emigrants were reported as having passed a single toll-gate in Pennsylvania, between March and December, 1817. They settled on the fertile western lands, cleared the wilderness, and set to work building homes, towns, and cities, with marvelous rapidity.

Emigrants moved west, mainly, by four different routes: (1) Across New York State by way of the Mohawk valley. (2) From Philadelphia over the mountains to Pittsburg. (3) From Baltimore along the Potomac river, then over the mountains. (4) Across the mountains of Virginia and into Kentucky and Tennessee. Three cities, New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore, became rivals in reaching out for the commerce of the rapidly growing West. (See map, p. 263.)

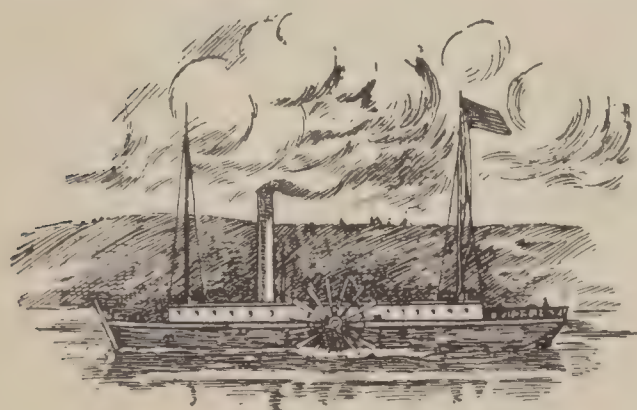
Steamboats. One influence, that tended greatly to increase emigration, was a new means of transportation. Efforts had been made for several years to perfect a steamboat, and with some degree of success. James Rumsey, in the presence of General Washington, launched a steamboat on the Potomac, 1786, which went at the rate of four miles an hour against the current. John Fitch built several, the first in 1787, which was propelled by oars fastened on each side and worked by steam. It made a trial trip at Philadelphia, before the members of the Constitutional Convention. From June to September, 1790, one of his boats made regular trips between Philadelphia and Burlington, New Jersey. Patrick Millar exhibited a steamboat in Scotland, 1787; Robert Fulton, one at Paris, France, 1804; and John Stevens, one on the Hudson, 1804.

ROBERT FULTON. But the first practical success was achieved in 1807, when Robert Fulton built the *Clermont*, which made a trip from New York to Albany, a distance of 150 miles, at the rate of five miles an hour. The first steam vessel on the Ohio was launched at Pittsburgh, 1816. After the invention of the steamboat, it was no longer necessary to float merchandise down the river and make the return trip hundreds of miles on foot. The use of the steamboat was rapidly extended.



ROBERT FULTON.

The *Phœnix*, built by John and Robert Stevens, made a successful trip on the Hudson, a few days after that of the *Clermont*. As the legislature of New York had



THE CLERMONT.

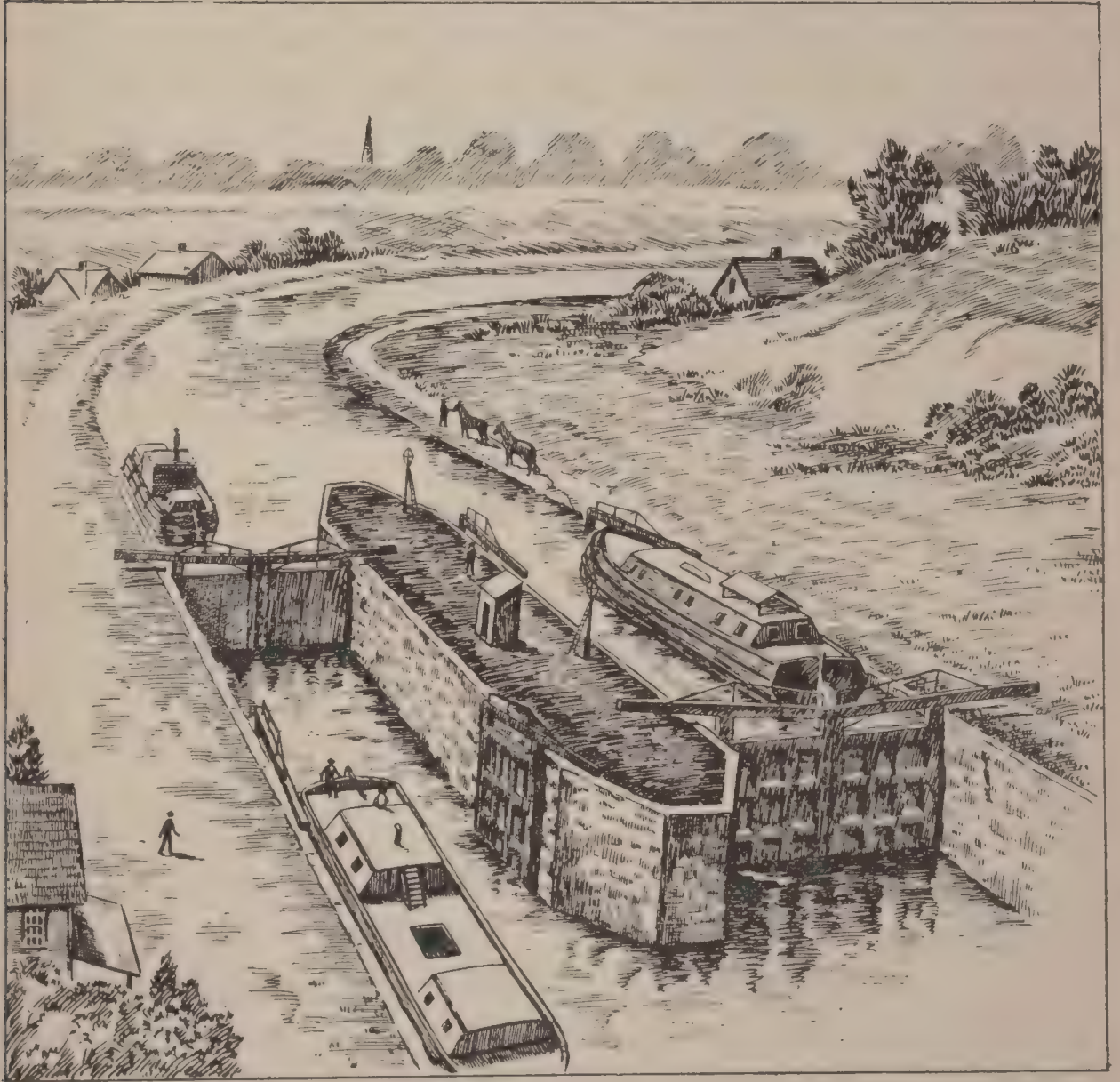
given to the inventor of the first successful steamboat the exclusive right to navigate the rivers of the state, the Stevens brothers took their boat to the Delaware river by the sea, where it was used for six years. This was the first steamboat to sail upon the ocean. In

1819 the steamship *Savannah*, burning wood for fuel and fitted also with sails, crossed the Atlantic.

The steamboat thus became a great factor in the development of the country. Freight rates were reduced. Prices on goods fell in proportion. Speed and convenience in travel added greatly to the settlement of the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. The merchants of the seaboard found a way to send their manufactured goods to the West and receive pay in the products of the fertile soil.

The Erie Canal, 1817–1825. The people of New York, determined to make a quicker and cheaper route for travel and the transportation of merchandise, began (1817) to construct

a canal from Albany to Buffalo, on Lake Erie, a distance of 363 miles. It was a great undertaking. The canal was forty feet wide and four feet deep, but was afterwards changed to a depth of seven feet. The work was done with pick and shovel, through swamps and forests, over hills and through masses of rock. Locks with solid walls of masonry were built, in which to raise and lower the boats. Tight wooden bridges, called



A CANAL AND LOCKS.

aqueducts, were built to carry the water over rivers and ravines. When the canal was completed, in the fall of 1825, cannon placed five miles apart flashed the message across the state. When the water was turned in, a fleet of canal-boats, carrying Governor Clinton and other distinguished citizens, left Buf-

falo (Oct. 26), and arrived at New York November 4th, 1825. A keg of water brought from Lake Erie was poured into the Atlantic by the Governor, to commemorate the complete connection of the Lakes with the Atlantic by canal.

EFFECT OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE CANAL. 1. The completion of the canal greatly reduced the cost of transportation.* 2. It increased western emigration and stimulated trade wonderfully between the East and West. 3. It made western food products cheaper in the East and eastern manufactured goods cheaper in the West, enriching both sections alike. Prosperous cities sprang up along its banks, and New York City soon became the chief commercial center in the country.

ENLARGEMENT. The Erie canal has been enlarged several times. In 1903 the people in New York state voted \$101,000,000 to change it to a barge canal, with a depth of twelve feet, over a new route one-third of the way. This greatly enhanced the value of the canal.

Other Canals. The Chesapeake and Ohio Company was formed to build a canal from Georgetown to Cumberland, Md.; then by tunnel through the mountains to the Youghiogheny river; then by canal to Pittsburg. When the canal was not more than half finished, at a cost of \$11,000,000, work was stopped by the appearance of a dangerous rival, the Baltimore and Ohio Railway.

Many other canals, principally in New England, Ohio and the Middle States, were built. The Miami canal, extending from Cincinnati to Dayton, and the Wabash and Erie, connecting Lake Erie with the Ohio river, and the Welland canal, built by the Canadian government in 1833, connecting Lake Erie with Lake Ontario, are some of the important ones.

There were serious obstacles to the use of canals. Floods and slack water hindered traffic. Winter freezes stopped the operation of the boats for several months. Canals could only follow river courses, or cross low and narrow divides. Rail-

* The freight rates on a ton of goods by wagon-road was about \$32 for a hundred miles; by canal for the same distance the cost was \$1 per ton.

roads could be built with less expense and in any direction, over hill and valley, mountain and plain, making a continuous trip.

DECAY OF CANALS. The introduction of steam as a motive power was the death-knell of canal-boats. Time alone was needed to extend the railroads. Canals then fell into disuse and decay. Of the 9,000 miles of canals built, only 1,000 miles were in use in 1912.

The old tow-boat, drawn by horses, is almost a thing of the past. The modern canals like the Panama, Welland, and the Erie Barge, are used to connect one large body of water with



EARLY ROUTES FOR TRANSPORTATION OVER THE MOUNTAINS.

1. The Erie Canal, extending from Troy to Buffalo.
2. The middle route, extending from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, included a horse railway from Philadelphia to Columbia, a canal from Columbia to Hollidaysburg, a portage railway from Hollidaysburg to Johnstown, and a canal from Johnstown to Pittsburg.
3. The lower route included a canal from Washington to Cumberland, and a railroad from Baltimore to Wheeling.

another, and are built large enough to carry steamships. Another form of canal is that which is built around the shallows or the rapids of a river, allowing boats to pass through the canal to deep water in the river above, like those along the St. Lawrence and Mississippi rivers.

Highway from Philadelphia to Pittsburg. The opening of the Erie canal caused great excitement in Philadelphia. Freight could be taken from Philadelphia by boat to New York, then over the Erie canal and down to Pittsburg, for one-half of what it cost to take it over the mountains. With the national road on one side and the great canal on the other the trade of Philadelphia would be ruined, unless something could be done to cheapen the rate across the mountains. The legislature of Pennsylvania voted money to build such a highway. Ground was broken at Harrisburg, July, 1826. The route went by horse rail* from Philadelphia to Columbia, then by canal along the Susquehanna and Juniata rivers to Hollidaysburg, then over the steep sides of the mountain by a "portage" railroad† to Johnstown, then down to Pittsburg by canal. The cost of this enterprise was \$10,000,000.

Early Railroads. The early railroads were used to supplement canals. Wooden rails were used. These were soon followed by bands or strips of iron on top of the rails to make them more durable. The cars were drawn by horses. One of the first of these was at Quincy, Massachusetts, three miles long, built in 1826. It was used to carry granite from the quarries to tide-water. In 1827 several plans were formed to build roads of great length.

The legislature of Massachusetts appointed a commission to select a route for a railroad to connect Boston with the Erie canal at Albany. The same year, at a public meeting at Baltimore, plans were made to build a railroad from Baltimore over the mountains to the Ohio; and on the fourth of July, 1828, work was begun on what is now the Baltimore &

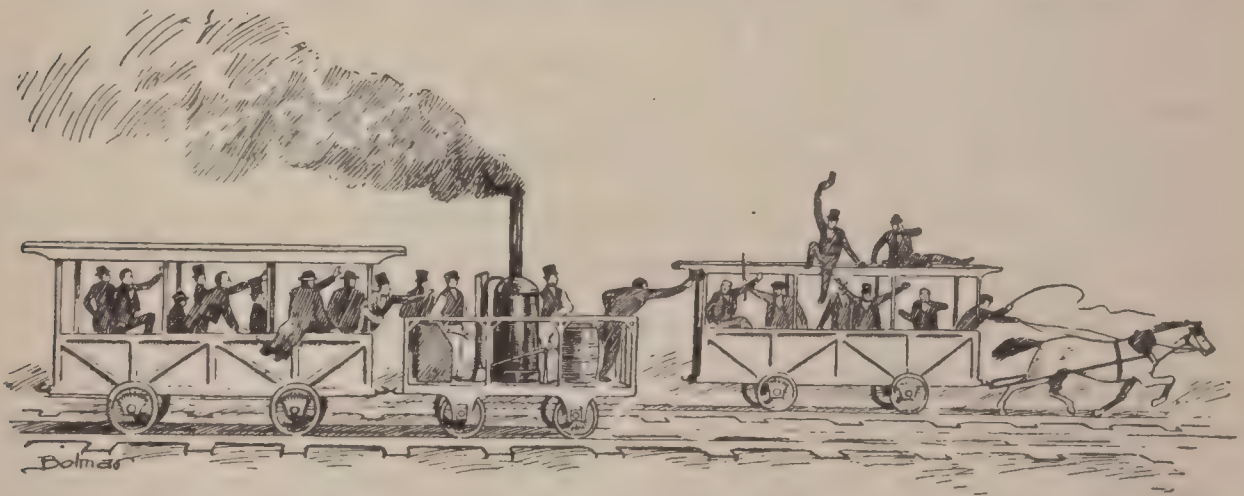
* The rails were of wood, covered with iron strips, and the cars pulled by horses.

† The portage railroads were a series of inclines. The trains were pulled up these by stationary engines and let down on the other side of the slope.

Ohio Railroad.* About the same time, New York and South Carolina became active in railroad-building.

Steam Engines and Railroad Construction. George Stephenson had built and used a steam locomotive in England as early as 1814. After making various improvements, he produced (1829) an engine, named "The Rocket," which may be called the parent of the swift and powerful engines of today.

The first locomotive in the United States made a trial trip on the rails of the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company, 1829, with little success, as the track was too light for a heavy engine. The next year a locomotive, "Tom Thumb," in-



PETER COOPER'S LOCOMOTIVE, "TOM THUMB," RACING WITH A HORSE CAR.

vented by Peter Cooper, made a trial trip on the Baltimore & Ohio tracks, from Baltimore to Ellicot Mills, a distance of thirteen miles, in an hour and thirteen minutes. The same day, the engine ran a race with a horse drawing a coach on a parallel track, and the race ended in favor of the horse. But, despite this defeat, steam had as much power then as it has today. A few experiments and improvements were all that was needed to send heavy trains over the tracks with great speed. In January, 1831, the South Carolina Railroad Company began the use of a steam engine on its tracks at Charleston. The same year, an engine on the Baltimore & Ohio tracks obtained a speed of fifteen miles an hour. The use of steam

* Charles Carroll of Carrollton, 93 years of age, the only survivor at that time of those who signed the Declaration of Independence, broke the first ground, with these words: "I consider this the most important act of my life, second only to the signing of the Declaration of Independence—if second to that."



ONE OF THE FIRST RAILWAY TRAINS.

This train made the first excursion trip from Albany to Schenectady, August 9, 1831, on the Hudson-Mohawk Railroad.

as a motive power grew rapidly, and revolutionized all lines of travel and transportation. Railroad construction was carried on with great energy. The whole country seemed awake to the possibilities of the steam railway. Numerous companies were formed and a large number of roads were commenced. From a few miles of track in 1830, the mileage increased to 2,775 miles in 1840; to 9,000 miles in 1850; and to 30,635 miles in 1860. By this time most of the larger cities were linked together by ties of iron. Unfortunately, few of the roads ran north and south, and friendly intercourse was not secured where it was much needed.

Formation of New States, and Territorial Expansion.

Vermont was the first new state to be admitted to the Union, under the Constitution. It was formed out of the territory claimed by both New York and New Hampshire, and became a free state; 1791. During the Revolutionary War, the people there formed a new state (1777), and applied to the Continental Congress for admission. It was not granted; so Vermont was practically a self-governing republic until 1791. Kentucky was admitted, with slavery, in 1792. Tennessee was admitted, with slavery, in 1796; Ohio, free, in 1802; Louisiana, slave, in 1812; Indiana, free, 1816; Mississippi, slave, 1817; Illinois, free, 1818; Alabama, slave, 1819; Maine, free, 1820; Missouri, slave, 1821. Maine had been a part of Massachusetts, but with the consent of Massachusetts it withdrew, and applied for admission to the Union.

By 1820, two great Territories (Louisiana and Florida) were annexed to the original territory, and claims were well established to the Oregon Country. The Floridas opened the way

to the Gulf. The Louisiana Territory more than doubled our original domain, and the Oregon Country opened the way to the Pacific Ocean.

Growth of Population, 1790–1860. The population of our country in 1798 was about 4,000,000, and since then the growth has been rapid and constant. For each decade between 1790 and 1860, the average increase was nearly 4,000,000, or an amount equal to the total population when Washington became President. In other words the population had increased eight fold in seventy years, while at the same time the population of England had not doubled, and that of France had increased only one-half.

During this period between five and six million immigrants arrived in the United States. This number, however, was only a small part of the total increase, the rest being due to the natural growth; for in those days, when every household had need for help, families were large.

The population in 1860 was in round numbers 31,400,000, distributed over thirty-three states. Of this number about 15,000,000 lived in the thirteen original states, and the rest were found in the states which were admitted after the adoption of the Constitution. It is apparent, then, that at the beginning of the Civil War more people lived west of the Allegheny Mountains than lived east of them.

The growth of cities had already become noticeable. By 1860 there were 141 cities, each with more than 8,000 people, but only two of this number, New York and Philadelphia, had more than half a million.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES EACH DECADE.

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>Per Cent of Increase</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>Per Cent of Increase</i>
1790	3,929,241		1830	12,866,020	33.55
1800	5,308,483	35.10	1840	17,069,453	32.67
1810	7,239,881	36.38	1850	23,191,876	35.87
1820	9,633,822	33.07	1860	31,443,321	35.58

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

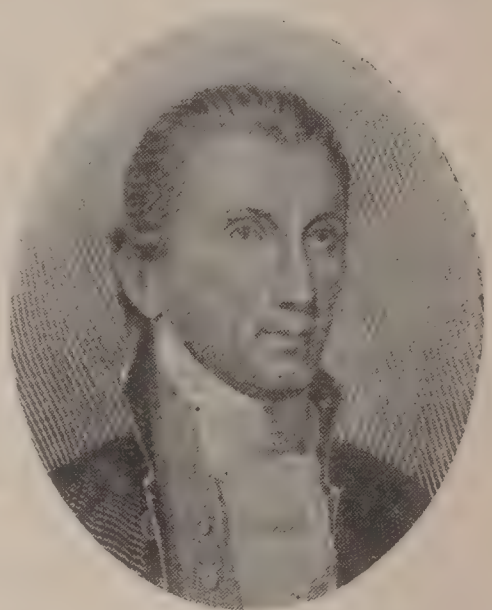
Tell about the migration westward after the war of 1812-1814. Name the four routes across the mountains. Tell of Rumsey's steamboat. John Fitch's steamboat. What was done by Robert Fulton? What effect did steamboat traffic have on the price of goods? Give a brief history of the Erie Canal. What are locks? Of what benefit was the Erie Canal to the West? To the East? Why was the Cumberland Canal not completed any farther than to Cumberland? Describe the route of transportation from Philadelphia to Pittsburg. What caused canals to go out of use. Why? What canals are now in use? Give an account of the first railroads, horse railways and steam railways. What effect did railroads have upon commerce? What new states were admitted?

CHAPTER XXI.

THE MONROE DOCTRINE, MISSOURI COMPROMISE, AND PROTECTIVE TARIFF.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MONROE, 1817-1825.

Era of Good Feeling. During Monroe's administrations party spirit and party strife died out for a time. His second administration was known as the "Era of Good Feeling." There was no longer a party favoring England and another favoring France. The war of 1812 won commercial independence for us, and settled the foreign questions which had divided the people. Parties had to be rebuilt on new issues. The people forgot party strife, and paid attention to business and the welfare of the nation rather than to politics. The Democratic-Republicans, in theory, favored peace and a strict construction of the Constitution, but in practice they made war, and, by the purchase of Louisiana, had placed a broad construction upon the Constitution. From 1816 to 1824 the two parties had merged practically into one. Only one vote was cast against Monroe for President in 1820, and that was cast by William Plumer, an elector from New Hampshire.



JAMES MONROE.

Florida and the Seminole War, 1818. Florida, which then belonged to Spain, was a source of much trouble to the people of the South. Bands of Seminole Indians, joined by runaway slaves, made raids into Georgia and Alabama, murdering families and carrying off property. When pursued, they would cross the Florida border, believing that the United

States troops would not dare to follow them into Spanish territory. Complaints to the Spanish government brought no redress; so Andrew Jackson was sent with troops to put an end to these raids; if necessary, to follow the Indians into Florida, but not to seize any Spanish property. He defeated the Indians with energy and dispatch, but, contrary to instructions, he took two Spanish forts, St. Marks and Pensacola, and hung two English traders, Arbuthnot and Ambrister, as spies. Jackson's rash act was applauded by the people, but in justice to Spain the President restored the forts.

Purchase of Florida, 1819. In 1803 Jefferson tried to purchase Florida along with New Orleans, but secured Louisiana instead. There was no fixed boundary between Spanish Mexico and Louisiana. Both Mexico and the United States claimed Texas, which caused trouble in that quarter. This, combined with the constant trouble along the Florida border, induced Spain to agree to a settlement which resulted in the Florida Treaty.

THE FLORIDA TREATY, 1819-1821.* By the terms of this treaty several important matters were settled:

1. Spain ceded Florida to the United States, for which the United States paid \$5,000,000 to American merchants for injury done their commerce by Spain.

2. The boundary was definitely fixed between Spanish Mexico and the United States.* (See map, p. 238.)

3. By the terms of the treaty the United States gave up all claims to Texas, and Spain gave up all claims on the Oregon Country.

The Monroe Doctrine, 1823.—GROWTH OF DEMOCRACY. After the United States became a republic the spirit of freedom grew rapidly. The French Revolution wiped monarchy out of France. A wave of democracy swept over Europe. Beginning

* The treaty was not finally ratified by Spain until 1821. She purposely delayed the approval, to keep the United States from recognizing the independence of the South-American republics.

† The boundary was fixed from the Gulf of Mexico along the Sabine river to the 32d deg., then due north to the Red river, westward along the Red to the 100th meridian; thence due north to the Arkansas river, westward along the Arkansas to its source, then north to the 42nd parallel; then west on the 42nd parallel to the Pacific.

with 1810, one after another of the Spanish colonies of South America and Mexico rebelled and formed republics.

HOLY ALLIANCE.* The monarchs of Europe became alarmed at these revolutions, and formed what was called the Holy Alliance (1815), for the purpose of protecting the territorial and political rights of monarchs.

As long as the work of the Holy Alliance was confined to Europe, we offered no complaint: but when, in 1823, it planned to help Spain regain her lost colonies in America, the United States became deeply interested.

About the same time that Spain began these aggressions, Russia, which then owned Alaska, was threatening our claims on the Oregon Country. As early as 1812 she had made a settlement in California,† and in 1821 the Czar announced that Russia claimed all the land along the Pacific coast as far south as the 51st parallel.

THE MONROE DOCTRINE. Great Britain had built up quite a trade with the South-American republics, which she did not wish to lose. Rumors that Spain would try to regain these republics, France to take Mexico, and that Russia would seize California, disturbed both Great Britain and the United States. The British prime minister wanted the United States to join Great Britain in making a declaration to the allied powers, warning them to keep their hands off the American States. But John Quincy Adams, Secretary of State, insisted that we should not follow England's lead, but assume full and sole responsibility for the protection of the republics in America. Upon this suggestion, President Monroe in his message to Congress, 1823, announced the famous "Monroe Doctrine," which said:

1. "That the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers."

* The Holy Alliance at first included only Russia, Prussia, and Austria, but later included nearly all the countries of Europe except Great Britain.

† The settlement was made at Fort Ross, on Bodega Bay, near the Russian river, north of San Francisco. Another was made on the Farallones Islands.

2. "That we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere, as dangerous to our peace and safety."

3. That we would not interfere with any European colonies already established nor meddle with the politics of Europe.

The result was that no attempt was made to recover the Spanish colonies, and in 1824 Russia made a treaty with the United States by which she gave up all claims to territory on the Pacific coast south of $54^{\circ} 40'$, and the United States agreed not to make any settlement north of that line.

Slavery, North and South. At the outbreak of the Revolution, slavery existed in all of the thirteen colonies. In the North, slaves were relatively few, but in the South they formed a large portion of the population. The first census (1790) recorded 40,000 north of the Mason and Dixon line and 654,000 south of it. In Maryland, Virginia and North Carolina there was one slave for every two white persons, and in South Carolina the slaves were almost equal in number to the whites. In colonial days both North and South clearly saw the evils of slavery. Most of the southern colonies keenly felt that the planter's money gain was largely offset by the social and political evils which went with the system, so they attempted to restrict the importation of slaves by placing a tax on those brought into the colonies. In the North, where slave labor was not so profitable, the objections to slavery were social, political, and economic. Then, too, the struggle for independence developed a keener appreciation of human rights. The political maxim "That all men are created equal" had taken fast hold of the people. So the North undertook not only to restrict the importation of slaves, but to set to work to free those already there. The new territory of Vermont, when it formed a constitution, 1777, prohibited slavery. Massachusetts in 1780 placed a clause in her constitution declaring that "all men are born free and equal." This, in 1783, by judicial interpretation was declared to mean that slavery could not exist in the state. By 1800, all of the New England States, New York and Pennsylvania had made provisions for abolishing slavery.

THE EFFECT OF THE COTTON GIN, CLIMATE AND SOIL. The invention of the cotton gin gave a great stimulus to the cultivation of cotton, and made a great demand for slave labor.

The industries of the North were of such character that slave labor could not be used to advantage, and the climate was too severe for those accustomed to the heat of Africa. In the South the climate and soil were well suited for the growth of rice, tobacco, and cotton, all of which required a great amount of cheap labor. Slaves were useful for this purpose. They would wade knee-deep in water and mud, in malaria-breeding districts, bending under a broiling sun, and care for growing crops of rice. They could be herded in gangs under hired overseers, to cultivate, at little cost and with great profit to the planters, large fields of cotton and tobacco. In the course of time slavery became deeply rooted in the South, and was considered necessary to the prosperity of the people. The interests of the two sections were gradually growing apart, but slavery did not become a great political question until Missouri applied for admission to the Union as a state.

The Missouri Compromise, 1820.—MISSOURI AND MAINE APPLY FOR ADMISSION TO THE UNION. In 1819, when the admission of Missouri was under discussion, there were eleven free and eleven slave states, which gave the same number of Senators in Congress to both sections, but the North had a larger population and consequently a larger number of Representatives. If more free states should be admitted, the North might pass laws against slavery. The South became very active for the extension of slavery, partly as a means of preserving it where it already existed. A long, bitter struggle on the slavery question followed. The Mason and Dixon line and the Ohio river formed the dividing-line between the free and the slave sections. Part of Missouri lay north and part south of this line. About this



HENRY CLAY.

time Maine applied for admission to the Union as a free state, which opened the way to a settlement known as the Missouri Compromise. Henry Clay was one of its chief advocates.

THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE was an act passed by Congress, March, 1820, which provided:

1. For the admission of Missouri to the Union as a slave state.

2. That slavery should forever be prohibited in the Louisiana Territory (Missouri excepted)* north of $36^{\circ} 30'$ of north latitude.

3. An act was passed admitting Maine as a free state.

Lafayette's Visit to America, 1824. Lafayette, the friend of America in the struggle for Independence, paid a visit to the United States (1824), at the invitation of Congress and the President. He visited every one of the twenty-four States, and all the principal cities and towns. The fact that he had sacrificed fortune and the comforts of home to aid in giving independence to a nation across the sea, appealed to the American heart. Everywhere he went this aged benefactor was received with love and respect. He was present at the laying of the corner-stone of the Bunker Hill monument, June 17, 1825, when Webster gave one of his great orations. In appreciation of his services to this country, Congress voted him \$200,000 in money, a township of land in Florida, and built a special ship, the *Brandywine*, to carry him home.

New Political Issues. In the early part of Washington's administration the people divided on Hamilton's financial policy. After this they differed on our relations with foreign nations, and from 1812 to 1815 they differed on the management of the war. Then followed a period of political rest, the "era of good feeling." Soon, however, new issues appeared. The people began to favor measures which would promote the interests of their particular section. New England wanted higher tariffs, to encourage manufacturing. The planters of the South did not engage in any manufacturing, but raised a

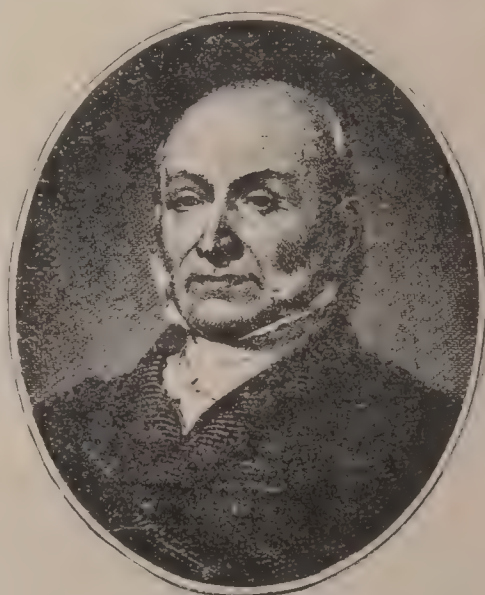
* No mention was made of the territory south of $36^{\circ} 30'$; but the people assumed and always took it for granted that the territory was open to slavery.

large amount of cotton, which they sold either in the North or in England. They wanted a low tariff, so they could buy the manufactured goods cheap. The West and the East wanted internal improvements at government expense to facilitate the exchange of their products.

Presidential Election, 1824. Although these issues were attracting the attention of the people, they had but little effect in the selection of a president in 1824. There were four candidates: Andrew Jackson of Tennessee, John Quincy Adams of Massachusetts, Henry Clay of Kentucky, and William H. Crawford of Georgia. The campaign was largely personal. Each section had a favorite candidate, but no one received a majority of electoral votes; so the election went a second time to the House of Representatives. Henry Clay cast his influence for Adams, and Adams was elected President. John C. Calhoun was chosen Vice-President.

ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, 1825–1829.

Adams's Policy. Adams strongly favored internal improvements. He recommended Congress to vote money for building public roads and canals and for improving harbors for navigation. He wished the government to build a national university and a naval school, and favored a high tariff. Like Hamilton, he placed a loose construction on the Constitution, and believed that the government, under "implied powers," could vote money for internal improvements even if the Constitution did not specifically authorize it. About \$2,300,000 was appropriated for this purpose during his administration. Jackson and Crawford combined their influence to defeat the measures advocated by Adams.



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

Death of Adams and Jefferson, 1826. Thomas Jefferson

and John Adams both died July 4, 1826, fifty years to a day after the Declaration of Independence. Jefferson was eighty years old, and Adams had attained the ripe age of ninety. Daniel Webster delivered an oration on the character of these great men, which today ranks as one of the classics of oratory.

Removal of the Creek Indians. In 1802, when Georgia ceded the Mississippi Territory to the United States, the government agreed to remove the Creek and Cherokee Indians from Georgia. To this they objected, so there was much delay in carrying out this promise. Some of the chiefs, who agreed to surrender the lands, were put to death by their tribes. The state of Georgia, dissatisfied with the delay, prepared to remove the Indians by force, and thus came in conflict with both the Indian tribes and the general government. The difficulty was adjusted, finally, when the Indians consented to the removal; so they were taken beyond the Mississippi, in 1826.

Differences Between the North and the South Widen. The agricultural and industrial interests of the people were gradually growing apart. In the South were large plantations, on which with slave labor were cultivated cotton, rice, tobacco, and sugar-cane. But little interest was taken in manufacturing and internal improvements. There were few large cities. In the North there were no large plantations. The farmers raised a variety of crops with free labor. The people eagerly made use of new inventions. The numerous good rivers made abundant power for mills and factories. Manufacturing soon became one of the chief industries. The two sections found that their interests and opinions differed widely on three important questions: slavery, tariff, and internal improvements.

Protective Tariff, 1824 and 1828. The tariff law of 1816 was too low to suit the manufacturers in the North. They succeeded in having a new tariff law passed (1824), placing a higher tax on imported goods which came in competition with American products. The wool-growers and manufacturers were not satisfied even with this law. By combining with other interests, they secured a higher tariff (1828). It greatly increased the duty on fabrics made of wool, cotton, and silk, and on iron

and lead products. The tariff was so high that it was called by some the "tariff of abominations."

The North favored a protective tariff because it protected the manufacturing interests, made wages higher, created a home market for the products of factory and farm, and, in the opinion of tariff advocates, made the country in general more prosperous. The South opposed a protective tariff, since it made them pay more for their manufactured goods, whether purchased in Europe or in the North. They received no more for their cotton, and did not share in the benefits of the law. "We buy dear and sell cheap," they said; so they bitterly denounced the tariff system.

New Political Parties. These new issues led to the formation of new parties (1828). The Democratic-Republicans dropped the latter part of their name and ever since have been called Democrats. Adams and Clay and their followers took the name Republican, and to it they prefixed the term National. They favored a protective tariff, internal improvements at government expense, and a loose construction of the Constitution.

A third party, called the Anti-Masonic, was formed. It had its origin in an incident which occurred at Batavia, New York. William Morgan, a former member of a Masonic lodge, was preparing to publish a book revealing the secrets of Masonry. He disappeared, and never was seen again. Many believed that Masons took his life. The new party, formed on this issue, opposed Masonry and other secret orders.

Presidential Election, 1828. Andrew Jackson, the "hero of New Orleans, a man of the people," was the Democratic candidate. He was immensely popular in the West, and the South was a unit for him, as he opposed the tariff of 1828. John Quincy Adams, the National Republican candidate, stood on his record as President. He was a man of the highest attainments, but knew not how to meet the great mass of people so as to win their confidence and good-will.

Jackson received 178 electoral votes, Adams only 83, and William Wirt, the Anti-Masonic candidate, none.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Discuss the "Era of Good Feeling." What was the condition of political parties at this time? What led to the purchase of Florida? Discuss the Treaty of 1819. What was the Monroe Doctrine? What circumstances made the Monroe Doctrine necessary? Discuss slavery and its relation to the cotton industry. What was the Missouri Compromise? Who was its author? What territory was affected by the Missouri Compromise? Tell of Lafayette's visit to America. What was the nature of the Presidential campaign of 1824? Who were the candidates? What was a protective tariff? Why did the people in the North favor the tariff and those in the South oppose it? What were the leading industries of each section?

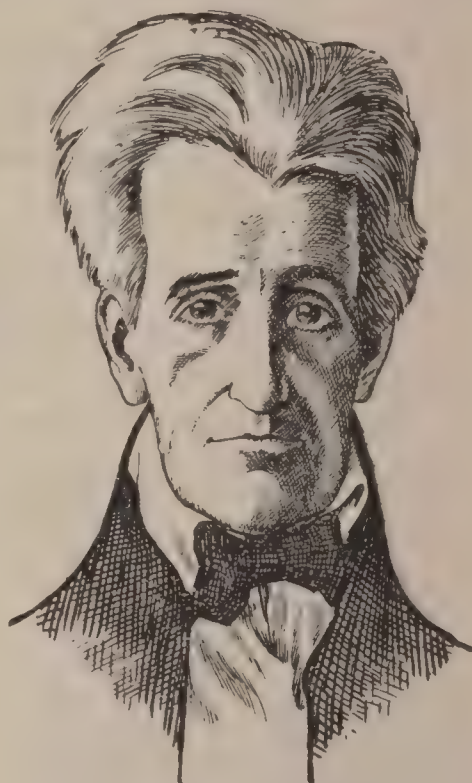
Tell something of Andrew Jackson, Holy Alliance, Henry Clay, Bunker Hill Monument, John Quincy Adams, internal improvements, Creek Indians, 1819, 1820, 1823, 1825.

CHAPTER XXII.

FROM JACKSON TO POLK.

ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JACKSON, 1829-1837.

Character of Jackson. Andrew Jackson is one of the most striking figures in American history. He was the first President to be elected from the new West, and was a pronounced type of frontier life. He had little education, but possessed a vigorous and active mind. He had very strong opinions, and was always sure he was right, whether he was or not. He could not tolerate difference of opinion. Lack of agreement meant lack of friendship, and lack of friendship meant instant, open and ceaseless war. Obstacles never discouraged him, but always made him more determined to carry out his plans. His character was strong; his will inflexible. The people admired and trusted him, hardly stopping to inquire whether his views were right or his judgment sound. Their answer to criticism was, "Hurrah for Jackson!"



ANDREW JACKSON.

The Spoils System. Soon after Jackson became President, he began dismissing government employées. In one year he removed over 700 officials,* who with their clerks and subordinates made a change in the public service of nearly 2,000 persons.* The presidents before him had as a rule removed officials only when incompetent. The whole number of removals for partisan purposes from Washington to Jackson was less than

* Sumner's *Andrew Jackson*, p. 190.

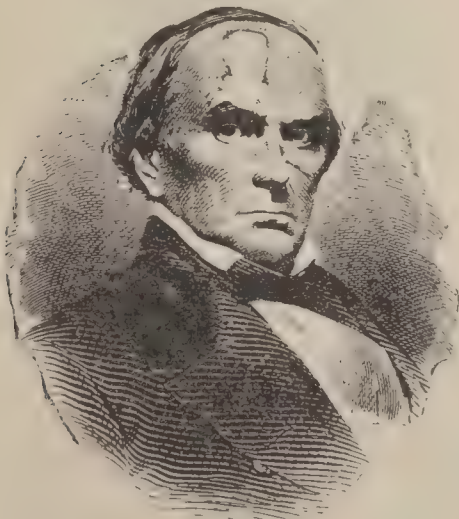
one hundred. "To the victors belong the spoils,"* was Jackson's policy, which since his time has been put into practice to a greater or less degree by all political parties. According to this system the standard for appointment was party loyalty and not merit or competency. The result was poor service, as many persons were appointed to office who were not qualified to do the work. Another result was the building up of a strong political machine to keep the party in power. The evil of the spoils system remained until 1883, when a civil-service act was passed, and the merit system introduced in some branches of public service.

State Rights, Nullification, and Secession. The advocates of State Rights claimed that the Constitution was a compact or agreement between the states, and that each state retained its sovereignty. Each state should decide for itself whether an act of the Federal Government was constitutional or not. Thus any state could declare a national law null and void within the state. This was called Nullification. By this theory the power of the state was greater than that of the nation. This doctrine carried with it the right of a state to

secede from the Union. It first found expression in the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, 1798, and again in 1814, in the Hartford Convention. After the Tariff Act of 1828, John C. Calhoun and Robert Y. Hayne became leading advocates of State Rights and Nullification.

Webster-Hayne Debate, 1830.

In 1830, Hayne, in a brilliant speech in the Senate, defended the doctrine of state rights and nullification, and severely attacked New England. Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, defended New England and the supremacy of the



DANIEL WEBSTER.

* In ancient times the people of a city or country would wage war against those of another for the purpose of conquest. If successful, the victors would make slaves of their captives and rob them of all their valuables. These were the "spoils of war." In politics the spoils are the salaried jobs.

Constitution. His speech ranks as one of the greatest in the annals of American oratory. He maintained that the Constitution is not a mere agreement; that the United States is a nation with supreme authority over the states; and that no state could annul a law of Congress or pass upon the national Constitution, and that state rights would disrupt the Union and lead to disaster.

The closing words of his speech, "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable," have come ringing down the decades as the expression of the patriotic sentiment of the American people.*

Nullification Act, 1832. A new tariff act was passed, 1832, making slightly lower rates than in the act of 1828. This did not satisfy South Carolina. The legislature called a convention, which declared the tariff act null and void within the state, forbade all persons to pay any tariff duties after February 1st, 1833, and threatened the withdrawal of the state from the Union if the Federal Government should use force to collect the duties.

Jackson's Proclamation. The southern leaders hoped for aid and sympathy from Jackson, as he was not in favor of the high tariff, but he, like Webster and Clay, was loyal to the Union, and saw that state rights was destructive to all government. He accordingly issued his famous proclamation against nullification, saying in effect: 1. That the Constitution is the supreme law of the land, and not an agreement between states; 2. That a state could not nullify an act of Congress; 3. That he was determined to execute the laws and to preserve the Union.

He forthwith ordered General Winfield Scott to go to Charleston with two war vessels and soldiers to enforce the laws. The sturdy, unbending character of Jackson was thus apparent in the civil crisis as it was at New Orleans when he won the title of "Old Hickory."

Tariff Compromise, 1833. The trouble between the Government and South Carolina came to an end, 1833, when Henry Clay, the "Great Peacemaker," succeeded in having a new

* On the day set for Webster's reply, great multitudes thronged the Senate chamber on the floor and galleries to hear him speak.

tariff law passed, gradually reducing the duties. South Carolina accepted this law and repealed her ordinance of nullification.

Nominating Convention. The nomination of Presidents by national convention was introduced in the party campaign of 1832. About the same time, parties commenced to publish their views on public questions in statements called "Party Platforms." Prior to this time the members of Congress met in "caucus" and selected presidential candidates; but in 1831 the Anti-Masonic party held a national convention at Baltimore, which nominated William Wirt for President. This method was followed by all other parties, and has continued in use ever since.

The National Republicans nominated Henry Clay; and the Democrats, Andrew Jackson, who received 219 out of 288 electoral votes. The electors of South Carolina, enraged at Jackson for sending troops to enforce the laws, cast their votes for John Floyd of Virginia. These electors and those who agreed with them were called the nullifiers.

Financial Troubles, 1832 to 1840.—EFFORTS TO RE-CHARTER THE NATIONAL BANK, 1832. In 1832, Congress passed a bill renewing the charter of the United States Bank. Jackson was very much opposed to the bank, believing that it was unconstitutional, a giant monopoly, and dangerous to the government and to the people. He accordingly vetoed the bill. Its advocates could not muster enough votes to pass it over the President's veto, so four years later, when the charter expired, the Bank ceased to be the National Bank, but it continued to do business under a charter given by the state of Pennsylvania.

REMOVAL OF DEPOSITS. After he had defeated the renewal of the bank charter, Jackson continued his warfare on the bank by instructing Duane, the Secretary of the Treasury (1833), to remove the government money from the bank and put it in certain state banks. Duane refused to do this; so Jackson dismissed him from office and appointed Roger B. Taney, who complied with the wish of the President. Nearly \$10,000,000 was on deposit. Taney issued the order, which required: 1. That the public funds should be withdrawn from the bank, as

the government had need for the money; 2. That no more money should be placed in the bank. The new deposits were to be distributed among state banks (called from this order "pet banks"), selected by the Secretary of the Treasury. In this way the government money was soon transferred from the United States Bank to the state "pet banks." The Senate considered this a high-handed act, and passed a resolution censuring the President.*

WILDCAT STATE BANKS. As soon as it became known that the charter of the United States Bank would not be renewed, many state banks were organized. The number increased from 288 in 1832 to 583 in 1836. All of them issued paper money, which the people borrowed and used in business or speculation.

WILD SPECULATION. This was a period of growth and rapid development along many lines. The building of canals, railroads, cities, towns, factories and mills occupied the attention of the people, and afforded many opportunities, good and bad, for the investor. Many investors went into wild speculation in public lands. They purchased large tracts which they parceled into farms or city lots, and sold at high prices. The income from land sales in 1834 was less than \$5,000,000; in 1835 it was three times as great, and in 1836 it totaled \$24,900,000. Most of the speculation was done with paper money, borrowed from the banks. This was paid to the land agent, who again deposited it in the bank, from which the speculators again borrowed the money to purchase more land.

National Surplus. Meanwhile the finances of the nation had become most prosperous. The national debt was practically paid in 1835. Money still continued to flow into the treasury from the tariff duties and the increased sale of public lands. After the debt was paid, money piled up rapidly in the treasury. January 1, 1836, the government had a surplus of \$41,500,000 in banks, and no debt. What to do with the idle money was a question. Congress passed the Deposit Act (1836), reserving \$5,000,000 for the government and pro-

* Through the efforts of Senator Thomas H. Benton, of Missouri, the censure was expunged three years later.

viding for the distribution of the balance, \$37,000,000,* among the several states in proportion to the number of senators and representatives each state had in Congress.

Specie Circular.† The purchasers of public lands were paying the government in state paper money. If the banks failed all this money would be worthless. Jackson became alarmed for the safety of the treasury, and issued an order, 1836, called the Specie Circular, which directed that nothing but gold and silver should thereafter be received in payment for public lands.

Financial Panic of 1837. The Specie Circular made a great demand for gold and silver, and the people, who were heavily in debt on account of excessive speculation, could not get money to meet their obligations. To add to these troubles, the government withdrew nearly \$28,000,000 from the banks and gave it to the states. The banks thus became short of money and were forced suddenly to call in their loans, which the people could not pay. Bank after bank failed, Factories and mills were forced to close their doors. Mercantile houses became bankrupt. The price of cotton dropped from twenty cents in 1836 to eight cents in 1837. Improvements stopped, and thousands of persons were thrown out of work. "Bread riots" took place in New York. This distress is known as the "financial panic of 1837."

Presidential Election, 1836. A new party, the Whig, had in the mean time appeared on the political horizon. As the old Whig party in New England and the other colonies opposed the arbitrary power of the King, so the new Whig party opposed the arbitrary rule of the President. It was made up largely of the National Republicans and Democrats who no longer indorsed the iron rule of Jackson.‡ William Henry Harrison was their candidate for President. The Democrats

* This was to be paid in four quarterly installments; three payments were made, amounting to \$28,000,000. Before the fourth was due the financial panic came, and left the government without funds. This money, intended as a loan, has never been repaid to the government.

† By a joint resolution in 1838 Congress annulled the Specie Circular.

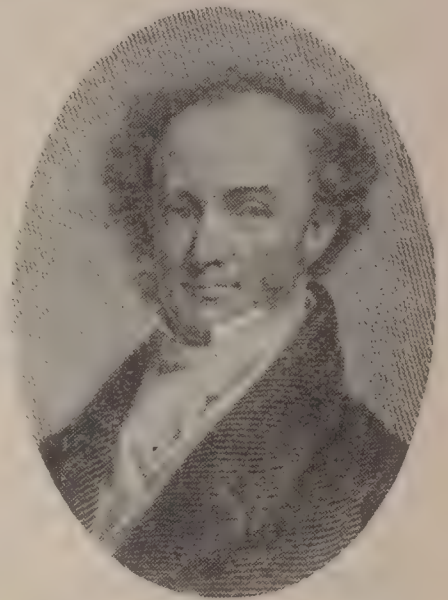
‡ Those opposed to Jackson in 1834 called themselves Whigs, and in 1836 became a national party, called the Whig Party.

nominated Martin Van Buren, who was elected, receiving 170 out of 296 electoral votes. His administration is noted for two things: one, the panic of 1837; the other, the creation of the Independent Treasury or Subtreasury system.

MARTIN VAN BUREN, PRESIDENT, 1837-1841.

Call for Government Help. The full crash of the financial panic came in Van Buren's administration, and bore heavily on the country. There was a widespread demand that the government help the people out of their troubles. But the government shared in the distress. Revenues decreased from \$50,826,000 in 1836 to \$24,954,000 in 1837, while expenses were increased by nearly \$7,000,000. The government was forced to borrow money, and to issue interest-bearing treasury notes.*

Time, economy, industry and judicious investments were necessary to restore prosperity.



MARTIN VAN BUREN.

The Independent Treasury and Subtreasury. Upon the recommendation of President Van Buren,† Congress, in 1840, passed the Independent Treasury Act. By this law a treasury was established at Washington, with branches called Subtreasuries in important cities, in which to keep the government money instead of keeping it in banks. This system has continued in force ever since 1846, with some minor changes. One objection to it is the fact that the money which is stored in the treasuries is withdrawn from circulation. This was partially overcome by a clause in the National Bank Act, 1864, authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to place a part of the government money, on security, in national banks in the various cities. In

* Between 1837 and 1843, \$47,002,900 of the treasury notes were issued, of which about one-third were reissues. When paper money became old and worn, the government reissues new notes to take the place of the old ones.

† Van Buren recommended the act, 1837. It was passed in 1840, repealed in 1841, and a new act passed in 1846.

this way the surplus money of the government may be put to commercial use.

The Black Hawk and Florida Indian Wars. The government policy of removing the Indians from regions settled by whites to the then unsettled country in the West, was the source of much trouble.

The Sac and Fox Indians, led by their noted chief Black Hawk, refused to surrender lands in Illinois and Wisconsin. In the war which followed, the Indians were defeated and forced to go west of the Mississippi.

Due largely to bad faith on the part of the United States in its treatment of the Seminole Indians in Florida, they took the war-path under Osceola, their chief, and for seven years (1835 to 1842), committed many barbarities with tomahawk and scalping-knife. They were, however, compelled to yield in 1842 to the strong hand of the government, and were taken to the Indian Territory beyond the Mississippi.

ANTI-SLAVERY MOVEMENT, 1820 TO 1840.

Two Conflicting Ideas. There were two great opposing forces at work on the slavery question: one, a deep and abiding conviction that slavery was wrong,—wrong morally, socially, and politically. This belief made martyrs of some men, who were ready to sacrifice all in life to advance the cause of freedom. The other force was the desire to protect self-interests. Slaves and slave labor were the chief source of wealth to the planters of the South, who were the ruling class. To them the abolition of slavery seemed to mean financial ruin. The Missouri Compromise of 1820 was an incident in the clash of these two ideas. Forward they went, step by step, each struggling for supremacy, until the final conflict came, and ended with the Civil War (1861–65).

Abolitionists. The sentiment for the abolition of slavery constantly grew stronger under the agitation of such men as Benjamin Lundy, James G. Birney, William Lloyd Garrison, Elijah P. Lovejoy, Wendell Phillips and others. Each of these excepting Phillips published anti-slavery papers, which exerted

a wide influence in creating sentiment against slavery. Garrison and friends went about forming abolition societies. Representatives from ten states met at Philadelphia, 1833, and formed the American Anti-Slavery Society, which society flooded the country north and south with anti-slavery papers and handbills. The feeling in the South was intense against the Abolitionists. Anti-slavery documents were destroyed. The legislatures of five southern states called upon the North to suppress the Abolitionists. Jackson asked Congress to pass a law which would exclude anti-slavery papers from the mails in the South. Five thousand dollars reward was offered by the state of Georgia for the arrest of Garrison.



WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON.

At first, people in the North were not in sympathy with the Abolitionists. The *Philanthropist*, published by Birney, was twice destroyed. The *Observer*, published by Lovejoy at Alton, Illinois, was destroyed twice by a mob, and he was killed while defending his press from a third attack. Garrison, the editor of the *Liberator*, was dragged about the streets of Boston. With difficulty his life was saved by the aid of the police, but he continued to publish the *Liberator* until the slaves were free.

The Right of Petition Denied. The "Gag Rule." Numerous petitions were sent to Congress asking for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. In order to keep down discussion on the slavery question, Congress passed a rule not to receive any petition on the slavery question. This was called the "gag rule." It was probably in violation of the Constitution, which says that Congress shall make no law abridging "the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances." This arbitrary action of Congress only served to increase sentiment against slavery. More and more petitions were sent to ex-President John Quincy Adams, now a Representative

from Massachusetts, who continued to introduce them in Congress; but all were laid on the table without discussion. Adams was threatened with expulsion from Congress, but he continued to fight the "gag law" for eight years, and finally succeeded in having it repealed, 1844.

Liberal Party, 1840. Neither Whigs nor Democrats would take sides on the slavery question. Those who were in favor of freeing the slaves left the old parties and formed a new party, 1840, called the Liberty Party.

Presidential Election, 1840. In the election which followed, in 1840, there were three presidential candidates. The Whigs nominated William Henry Harrison; the Democrats, Martin Van Buren; and the Liberty Party, James G. Birney, a former Alabama planter who had come to the North and had been converted to the abolition cause. The Whigs favored the renewal of the United States Bank and a higher tariff. They opposed the policies of Jackson and his followers, and some wished to restrict the extent of slavery.

The Democrats favored the Sub-Treasury, a tariff for revenue only, and a strict construction of the Constitution. They opposed the bank and national internal improvements, and wanted the settlement of the slavery question left to the states.

The Liberty party advocated the abolition of slavery.

The campaign was unique, and was attended by great excitement. Harrison, the hero of the battle of Tippecanoe, had at one time lived a simple life in a log cabin on a farm in Ohio. Van Buren was more aristocratic, and not so popular with the common people. A Baltimore newspaper, in attempting to ridicule Harrison, said he would be more at home in a "log cabin drinking cider and skinning coons" than in the White House serving the nation as President. Log cabins and hard cider were very common in those days, and soon they were made the emblem of the campaign by the Whigs. Log cabins and hard cider were hauled about the streets in parade. Log cabins were built for Whig headquarters. A barrel of cider stood close by, and on the door hung a coonskin and a leather latchstring as a sign of hospitality. The campaign

meetings became popular. Men flocked by hundreds for many miles, taking whole families to the meetings. The campaign became a sort of picnic holiday affair. The Whigs were victorious, Harrison being chosen President and Tyler Vice-President.*

HARRISON AND TYLER, 1841-1845.

President Harrison. William Henry Harrison was inaugurated President, March 4, 1841. After choosing an able cabinet, with Daniel Webster at the head as Secretary of State, and after issuing a call for a special session of Congress, Harrison became sick and died, April 4th, one month after the inauguration. Vice-President John Tyler succeeded him.† Harrison was the first President to die in office. The sad event cast a cloud of grief over the whole nation.



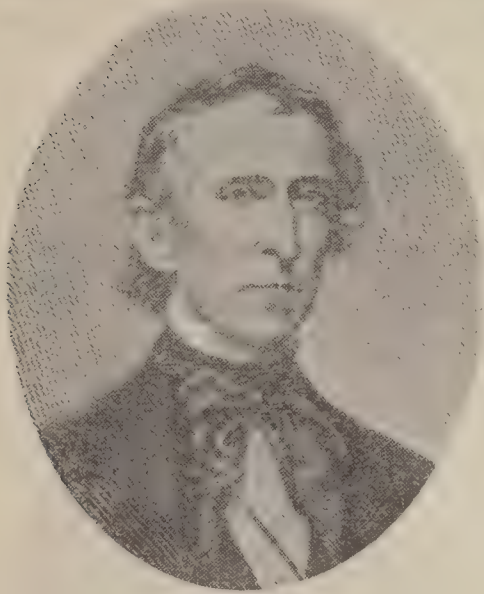
WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

Quarrel between Tyler and Congress. Tyler, the new President, for many years had been a Democrat, but he revolted against the iron rule of Jackson, and became an ardent supporter of Clay, who in 1840 sought the nomination for President on the Whig ticket. When the nomination went to Harrison, the convention sought to conciliate the Clay supporters by nominating Tyler for the vice-presidency, and at the same time secure a candidate that would draw a heavy Democratic vote. When Tyler unexpectedly became President there was doubt whether he would carry out Democratic principles or act with the Whig leaders. He retained Harrison's cabinet, but soon found himself at variance with the cabinet members and other leading Whigs. The Congress which

* Tyler was a states rights Democrat, but opposed to Jackson's policies. The Whigs nominated him for Vice-President, to be sure to carry the southern vote and secure the election of Harrison. Harrison carried nineteen out of twenty-six States, and received 234 out of 294 electoral votes.

† No provision had been made for filling the office of Vice-President in case of a vacancy.

Harrison had called met in special session, repealed the Sub-treasury Act, and passed an act called the bankruptcy law, for



JOHN TYLER.

the relief of those who had failed in business. Both bills received the approval of Tyler, but when Congress passed a bill incorporating a new United States Bank, which was a favorite measure of the Whigs, the President vetoed it. After strenuous efforts, they secured the assent of Tyler to the provisions of another bank bill, but when it reached him he again affixed his veto. The Whigs, who had elected Tyler, were now indignant. Every member of his cabinet except Webster, who was at the

time negotiating an important treaty England, resigned. In 1842, after a long struggle, in the course of which two bills were vetoed, a new tariff law was passed. The succession of Tyler to the presidency deprived the Whigs of much of the fruits of their victory. Soon, however, he found himself without many supporters among either the Whigs or the Democrats.

The Webster-Ashburton Treaty, 1842. In the mean time Daniel Webster, representing the United States, and Lord Ashburton, representing Great Britain, concluded a treaty (1842), which fixed the northern boundary of Maine. This had been in dispute ever since the Treaty of Paris (1783). By the terms of the latter treaty the boundary of Maine was placed along the St. Croix river to its source; then north to the highlands, then "along the said highlands which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those that fall into the Atlantic Ocean; thence to the northwesternmost head of the Connecticut river; thence down along the middle of that stream to the 45th degree of north latitude." A glance at the map will show that there are two highlands between the ocean and the St. Lawrence. Great Britain claimed the lower highlands and the United States

claimed the upper highlands as the boundary. Great Britain argued that the rivers between the two highlands flow into the St. John river and the St. John flows into the Bay of Fundy, which is not the Atlantic Ocean. The United States said that the Bay of Fundy is *an arm of the Atlantic Ocean*, and therefore a part of the Atlantic system, but in no way is it a part of the St. Lawrence system; therefore the boundary should be placed at the upper highlands. The dispute was finally settled (1842), by the Webster-Ashburton Treaty, which established the present boundary of Maine.*



About seven-twelfths of the disputed territory was given to the United States and five-twelfths to Great Britain. A study of the Treaty of Paris, viewed from our present knowledge of the territory in dispute, convinces us that England had no just claims, and that the United States was entitled to all land to the upper highlands.

Both nations also agreed to keep vessels along the coast of Africa to suppress the slave trade.

* The boundary was fixed from the source of the St. Croix due north to the St. John river, along the St. John to the St. Francis, up the St. Francis, then southwesterly to the crest of the mountains, then along the crest of the mountains to Hall's stream, down Hall's stream to the 45th degree, thence due west to the St. Lawrence river.

Domestic Troubles. There had been a gradual growth in the country of the idea of "equal rights to all." But certain laws that were opposed to this idea were still in force. Two notable examples were the Patroon system, in New York, and the Charter Government of Rhode Island. The latter was the cause of Dorr's Rebellion, the former was the cause of the Anti-rent difficulties.

DORR'S REBELLION. Rhode Island still retained the old charter given by Charles II., 1663, which was quite liberal for the time when given, but not in keeping with the growth of republican ideas. Only property-owners and the oldest son of each of these were allowed to vote. Thus two-thirds of the men of voting age were deprived of the ballot. A change in the laws was demanded. The non-voters, called the Suffrage Party, made a new constitution and elected Thomas W. Dorr as Governor. The regular voters, called the "Law and Order Party," also elected a governor (1842). Both sides took up arms and threatened war. On the approach of the state militia, supported by the authority of the Federal Government, Dorr's followers fled. He was arrested for treason, and convicted (1844), but a year later was pardoned from serving a life sentence. A new constitution was formed by the Law and Order Party, granting to the people some of the rights which had formerly been refused.

ANTI-RENT DIFFICULTIES. Descendants of the Dutch Patroons (see p. 81) still held large estates in New York. Attempts of the proprietors to collect back rents were resisted by the tenants. Disturbance and even violence reigned for ten years (1838-1849). The landholders were finally bought out by the state of New York.

Mormons. Joseph Smith, a young man living in Palmyra, New York, claimed that an angel of the Lord gave him golden plates inscribed with a message from Heaven. This message he published (1830), and called the "Book of Mormon." He made the alleged revelation the basis for a new and strange religious doctrine. Smith and his followers moved to Ohio, and then to Jacksonville, Missouri, where their numbers increased

rapidly. Their doctrines and practices were obnoxious to the people, who drove them out of the state. The Mormons next built the city of Nauvoo, Illinois, (1839–1840,) where they erected a Mormon temple. Here, too, they incurred the ill-will of other people. Smith, as their prophet, and his brother, were arrested and taken to jail at Carthage. The people, believing that Smith's teachings were harmful to the country, stormed the jail and killed both Smith and his brother, and the state legislature annulled the charter for the city of Nauvoo.

Brigham Young next became prophet, and led his followers to Council Bluffs, Iowa, and a year later (1847) they moved to the desert region at Salt Lake, and, after sanctioning polygamy, began building a city and a Mormon temple. By diverting the water from the mountain streams into ditches for irrigation, the barren, dry soil was converted into rich, productive fields of growing crops, that now support a populous city made up of both Mormons* and Gentiles.†

* In 1890, Wilford Woodward, president of the Mormon Church, issued an order prohibiting plural marriages, but not annulling those already contracted. The constitution of the State of Utah also prohibits plural marriages.

† Gentiles is a name given by the Mormons to all persons not of their faith.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Tell of the life and character of Andrew Jackson. What was the "spoils system"? Doctrine of Nullification? What did South Carolina do about the tariff of 1832? What was Jackson's attitude toward Nullification? Tell of the Webster-Hayne debate. When were presidential candidates first nominated by conventions? What became of the National Bank? What is meant by a "national surplus"? What was done with the surplus in 1836? What were "pet banks"? What was the cause and result of the wild speculation? Tell of the financial panic of 1837. Who was chosen to succeed Jackson?

What is the United States Treasury? What are Subtreasuries? Tell something of the slavery movement from 1820–1840. Of the Liberty Party. Of the Campaign of 1840. Of the death of Harrison. Discuss the Webster-Ashburtōn Treaty.

Tell something of : J. C. Calhoun, Daniel Webster, Martin Van Buren, Black Hawk, William Lloyd Garrison, Elijah P. Lovejoy, Wendell Phillips, Mormons, Thomas Dorr; Specie Circular; 1837, 1842.

CHAPTER XXIII.

INVENTIONS AND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT.

Industries, 1800. The United States in 1800 was a nation of farmers, over nine-tenths of the people being engaged in agricultural pursuits. Land was cheap and plentiful, and farming profitable. The people in the South paid but little attention to manufacturing, although they had vast deposits of iron ore, boundless tracts of timber, and excellent mill and factory sites; but, neglecting to make use of these gifts of nature, they centered their energies in the cultivation of cotton, rice and tobacco, of which they shipped great quantities to Europe. With the money received from these commodities they purchased merchandise for the home and plantation. Thus in the course of time a great trade grew up between the South and Great Britain, part of which might have been carried on between the North and the South. The people in the North, however, not only cultivated the soil, raising wheat, corn, oats, cattle, hogs, and a variety of crops, but they also made use of the natural resources as well as of many inventions. Manufacturing, shipbuilding, commerce and fishing soon became important industries.

Manufacturing. During the war of 1812, when commerce was suspended with Great Britain and France, our manufacturing industries made rapid growth. On return of peace, however, they were threatened with ruin. European manufacturers, whose goods were made by cheap labor, could undersell manufacturers in America, where wages were higher. English manufacturers, eager to regain the trade which they had lost by the war, began to sell goods in America below London prices. Other nations of Europe also tried to secure some of the trade which hitherto had been monopolized by England.

In 1816 the imports from Great Britain alone amounted to \$155,000,000. Many American mills and factories were forced to close. Men who had invested their capital made an outcry against such conditions and sent memorials to Congress asking for protection.

PROTECTIVE TARIFF, 1816. In response to these petitions, Congress passed a new tariff act, 1816, placing higher duties on imported goods. This was the beginning of the protective tariff system which has been a feature of our government since that time. Thus encouraged, the manufacturing interests of the nation grew rapidly. In 1820 \$75,000,000 was invested in mills and factories, in which about 200,000 persons were employed, and in 1860 the total value of the factory products was \$1,885,000,000, and during the same year \$379,000,000 was paid for labor.

SAMUEL SLATER AND FRANCIS LOWELL. The invention of textile machinery by the English from 1765 to 1785 revolutionized the methods of weaving cloth. England thus gained a monopoly of the cloth industry, and by passing laws which prevented the shipment of any textile machines, models, plans or tools from the country, they hoped to retain that monopoly. America was eager to adopt the English methods. Although the legislatures of several of the states offered bounties for such methods and machines, none could be secured. An American paper containing an offer of a bounty of this character fell into the hands of Samuel Slater, foreman of an English cotton factory. Attracted by the advertisement, he came to the United States, and in 1790 built at Pawtucket, Rhode Island, the first cotton-spinning factory in America, making the machinery himself. In 1814 Francis Lowell set up at Waltham, Massachusetts, a factory with 1,700 spindles,—the first in the world to include spinning and weaving in the same building.

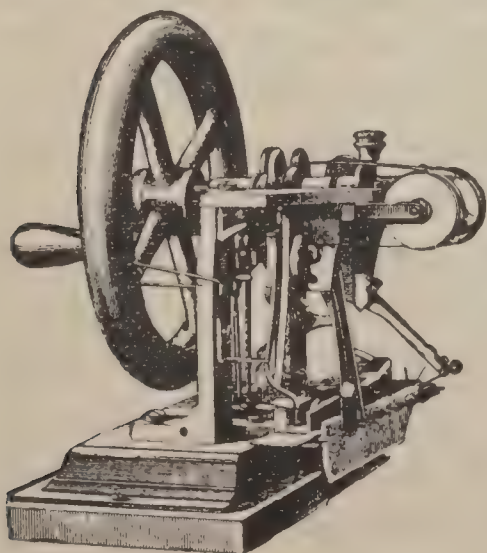
In those days the machinery was run by water-power, and factories had to be located on streams; but later the use of steam gave greater power and permitted them to be located in any city. From these small beginnings, in a few decades the weaving of cloth became an important industry. The value

of the goods turned out by the cotton mills of the United States alone amounted in 1860 to \$115,000,000.

Commerce 1800 to 1860. After France declared war against England, in 1792, and all Europe was drawn into the conflict, great bodies of men were taken from the field and factory to serve as soldiers. In this way a great demand was created for our farm products abroad. American merchants were quick to seize the opportunity, and sent shipload after shipload of wheat, flour, corn, bacon and cotton abroad in exchange for cotton and woolen cloth, hardware, china, glass, cutlery, etc.

This commercial prosperity was temporarily checked by the Embargo Act of 1807 and the War of 1812, and our foreign trade was not fully regained until 1830. From this date there was a marked increase, and by 1860 our imports amounted to \$353,000,000 and exports to \$333,000,000.

Inventions. Inventions have played an important part in the progress of the American people. With freedom of government came freedom of thought, and freedom of thought was a great stimulus to American inventive genius. During the first half of the nineteenth century more labor-saving machines were invented than in all the history of the world before, and most of these were the creations of American minds. In addition to the cotton-gin, steamboat, and steam engine, there were the sewing-machine, reaper, thresher, telegraph, Hoe cylinder printing-press, and an almost endless number of other inventions.



HOWE'S FIRST SEWING-MACHINE.

Sewing-Machine. On account of the great improvements made in the early part of the century in spinning and weaving, the looms were able to turn out cloth faster than busy hands could make it into garments. The inventive genius of Elias Howe contrived to supply the need by the construction of a sewing-machine, the greatest of all labor-saving machines for the home and a blessing to all women. After obtaining his

patent, in 1846, he spent four years at home and abroad in extreme poverty, trying to convince the people of the merits of his invention. When its usefulness became known his poverty was rapidly turned to wealth, his royalties amounting in 1863 to \$4,000 a day. Improvements have been made by Wheeler, Wilson, Baker, and Singer, and to the combined efforts of these men we are indebted for the sewing-machine as we know it today. In addition to the machine for domestic use are those which sew all forms of heavy cloth, books, shoes, harness, and leather goods.

The Harvester and Reaper.

The farmer, too, has shared the benefits of the American inventive genius. For years the sickle, scythe and cradle had been the instruments with which he cut his grain. With the sickle his work was very slow and tedious; when the cradle came into use he believed that the golden

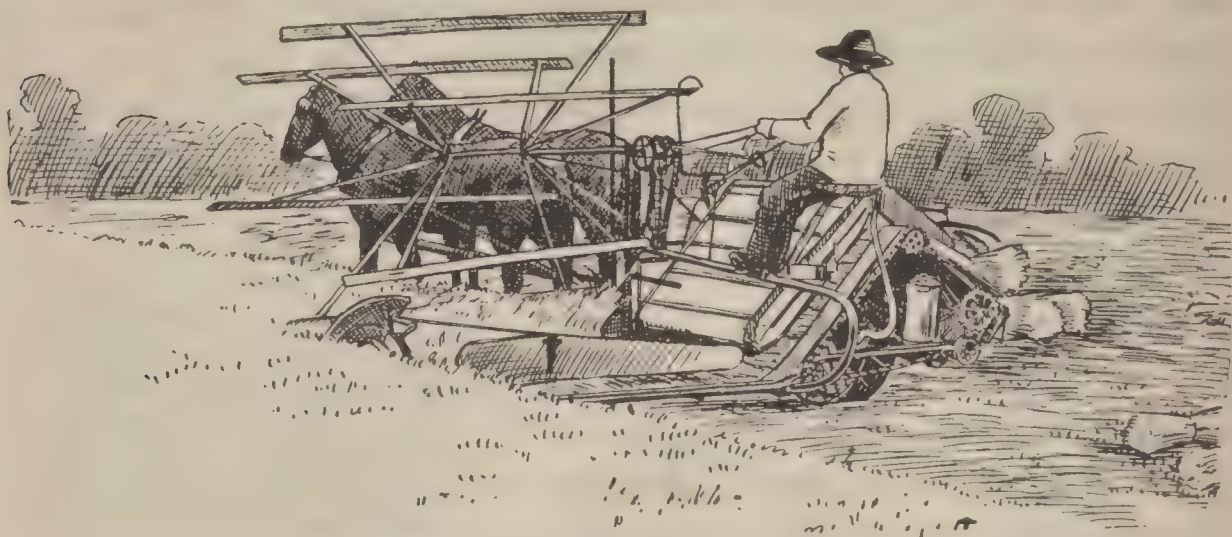


CUTTING GRAIN WITH THE SICKLE.



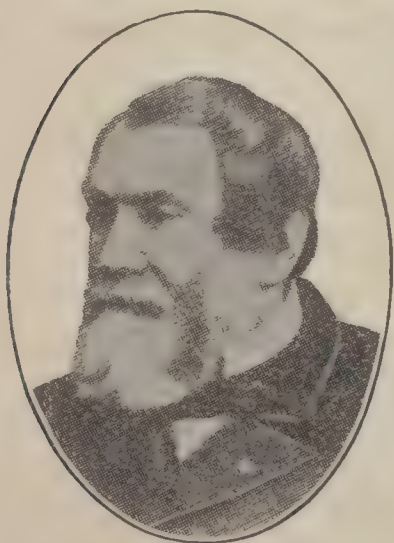
CUTTING GRAIN WITH THE CRADLE.

age of invention had come; but the invention of the mower and harvester was beyond his fondest dreams. These machines made a complete revolution in grain-cut-



CUTTING AND BINDING THE GRAIN.

ting, and made possible the great grain-fields of the West. One man with a team of horses could cut more grain in a



CYRUS H. McCORMICK.

day than twenty men could do swinging cradles. Cyrus H. McCormick, the inventor of the mower, secured a patent in 1834, but continued until 1840 to make improvements before marketing the machine. The manufacture of these machines soon became an important industry, and the use of them indispensable to the farmer. Following the reaper came the "binder," which not only cut the grain but bound it into sheaves, and following

the "binder" came the "header," which gathered only the grain heads, leaving the straw uncut.

From Flail to Thresher. Not many years ago farmers threshed their grain by beating it from the straw with flails, or by treading it out by riding horses over the sheaves spread on barn floors. The grain was then removed from the straw and chaff by raking and fanning. The threshing-machine was

next invented. By means of a rotating cylinder filled with iron teeth, the grain and chaff were torn from the straw, and by the use of a fanning-mill the chaff was separated from the grain. The two machines were later combined into one, and steam instead of horse-power was applied. With the steam thresher over a thousand bushels of wheat can be threshed in a day. The thresher and reaper built into a single machine and drawn by thirty horses is used in some of the large grain-fields on the Pacific slope. This machine cuts, threshes and sacks the grain ready for market.



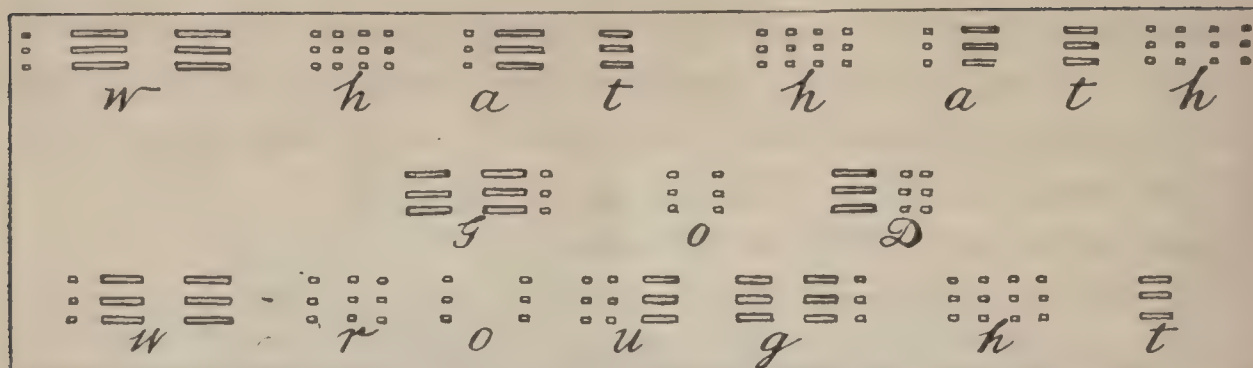
THRESHING GRAIN WITH A FLAIL.

Telegraph. The great inventions of this period (1800–1860) were not limited to labor-saving machinery nor to improved methods of transportation. One of the most remarkable inventions was that of the “magnetic telegraph,” by Professor Samuel F. B. Morse. By it, messages may be sent with the speed of lightning to the remotest regions penetrated by the wires. His patent for the telegraph was secured in 1837, and thereafter for seven years he labored at home and in Europe, through poverty and discouragement, to convince the incredulous people of the practical value of his invention. They looked



SAMUEL F. B. MORSE.

upon him as a dreamer and upon the machine as a scientific toy. No one would advance money to build a telegraph line, until finally, after a long and patient struggle, Congress (1844) voted \$30,000 with which to construct a line from Baltimore to Washington. The first message sent over the wires was, “What hath God wrought!” The invention was an immediate success, and



THE FIRST TELEGRAPHIC MESSAGE.

Sent from Washington to Baltimore, May 24, 1844.

proved that the inventor was not an idle dreamer, but a real genius whose purpose could not be stopped by poverty or the skepticism and ridicule of others. The use of the telegraph spread rapidly in the United States and Europe. By 1860 it was connecting principal cities in every state in the Union, and a year later messages could be sent from New York to San Francisco. Now every civilized country in the world is interwoven with a network of connecting lines, and messages may be sent around the globe.

Atlantic Cable, 1857-1866. The success of the telegraph on land soon led to a movement to try it under water. In 1854 Cyrus W. Field, of New York, helped to lay a cable that joined Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. Encouraged by his success, he conceived the idea of laying a cable across the Atlantic Ocean. Aided by business men in America and England and by an appropriation from Congress, he began to lay the cable in 1857, but the attempt ended in a failure, and a second effort likewise failed. In the third attempt, in 1858, a cable was stretched from Newfoundland to Ireland, but within a month it ceased to work. No further attempt was made until 1866, when Field succeeded in laying a trans-Atlantic cable that became a permanent success.

Other Inventions. In 1844 Charles Goodyear discovered a process of "vulcanizing" rubber, so that it could be made into shoes and garments; and in 1847 Richard M. Hoe invented the revolving cylinder printing-press, a remarkable machine for facilitating printing. Improvements in the art of printing are well illustrated by a comparison of a printing-press used by

Benjamin Franklin in the latter part of the eighteenth century, with a modern printing-press. Other inventions of merit and worth made in this period are too numerous to mention. They include a variety of machines for improved methods of carding, spinning, weaving, and dyeing, great improvements in artisans' tools, plows and other agricultural implements, cooking-stoves, boot-and-shoe machines, and in almost every line of industry.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Tell of the industries of the United States about 1800. What states did most manufacturing? Who built the first cotton-spinning factory? What led to a demand for American products in Europe? When was our commerce with Europe destroyed? When was it restored? What have inventions had to do with progress in America? In what way? What are labor-saving machines? What ones came into use? Who invented the reaper? What was the binder? The thresher? The header? Tell of the telegraph. The Atlantic cable. The sewing-machine. Tell of other inventions. Of the progress made because of machinery.

Who was Elias Howe? Isaac M. Singer, Samuel F. B. Morse, Cyrus H. McCormick, Cyrus W. Field, Richard M. Hoe, Charles Goodyear?

CHAPTER XXIV. STRUGGLE FOR MORE TERRITORY, RESULTING IN THE MEXICAN WAR.

TEXAS AND OREGON.

Early History and Settlement of Texas. After the purchase of Louisiana both Spain and the United States claimed Texas. But by the Florida Treaty the United States gave up

all her claims on this land. When Mexico declared her independence of Spain, 1821, and two years later became a republic under the name of the United States of Mexico, Texas was a part of that republic.

Moses Austin, a citizen of the United States, secured a large grant of land in Texas from the Mexican government (1820), on which to plant a colony. He died soon after receiving the grant, but his son, Stephen F. Austin, took up the work, and made a settlement in Texas in 1821. The scheme was a success.

Others besides Austin secured grants, and led settlers from the United States to Texas. By 1830 a large American population, chiefly from the southern states, had settled there.



Texas a Republic, 1826-1845. When the Mexican Republic (1829) passed a law freeing all slaves in Mexico, Texas refused to obey it. In this, as in other matters, the American settlers found themselves wholly out of sympathy with the Mexican government. So they rebelled, and set up a republic (1835), with a constitution favoring slavery. Santa Anna, the President of Mexico, led an army into Texas to put down the rebellion. Sam Houston, who had a short time before come from the United States, was placed at the head of the Texan army, and completely defeated the Mexican forces at San Jacinto (April 21, 1836). Houston was chosen President of the new republic. A little later (1837) Texas applied for admission to the Union as a slave state, but this proposal was defeated by the Senators from the free states; so Texas, for the time, remained a republic.

The Oregon Country.—ITS EARLY HISTORY. Four nations originally laid claim to the Oregon Country—England, the United States, Russia, and Spain. But Spain, by the Florida treaty, gave up all claim to the Pacific coast north of the 42nd parallel, and Russia in 1824 relinquished her claim to territory south of $54^{\circ} 40'$. England and the United States thus became the only claimants for the territory between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean, lying between Mexico and Russian Alaska.*

An effort, in 1818, to fix a boundary line between Canada and the United States through the Oregon Country had failed. The United States and Great Britain then agreed to a joint occupation of the country, with the understanding that either nation could end the agreement by giving to the other a year's notice.

EMIGRATION TO OREGON. This country began to attract the attention of settlers about 1842. Before this time the people who went to Oregon were mostly explorers, trappers, missionaries, and servants of trading companies. Among them was Dr. Marcus Whitman, who with a few companions entered

*The northern boundary of Mexico was the 42nd parallel. The southern boundary of Alaska was $54^{\circ} 40'$.

the Columbia valley in 1835, as a missionary among the Indians. In 1842 he came east on business connected with his missionary



THE OREGON COUNTRY.

The Oregon Country included the territory west of the mountain-crest between parallels 42° and $54^{\circ} 40'$. By the treaty of 1846 the United States received the territory south of the 49th parallel, and Great Britain received all the land north of it.

work. Realizing that the Oregon Country was in danger of falling into the possession of the British, who were already carry-

ing on an extensive fur trade there, Whitman on returning to Oregon in 1842, conducted a train of 200 wagons and 1,000 emigrants to that region. Other homeseekers followed, and in a few years several thousand Americans had founded homes there. A demand now went up for the settlement of the boundary.

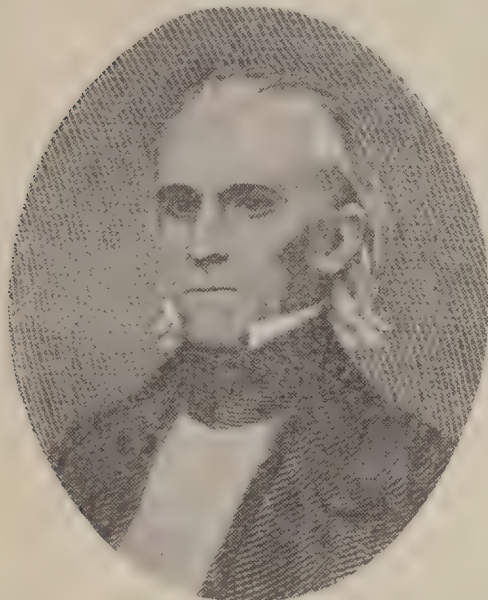
Desire for more Slave Territory. While many settlers were moving into the Northwest, other persons were eagerly trying to annex territory in the Southwest. The Missouri Compromise had excluded slavery in the Louisiana Territory north of $36^{\circ} 30'$. The territory south of this line, which was open to slavery, was small, while the territory north of it was large. (See map, p. 326.) The time was near at hand when Congress could no longer admit a slave state to balance the admission of each new free state. With more free states in the Union than slave states, Congress could pass legislation against slavery. It therefore became important that the slave interests get more territory. Efforts were several times made to purchase Texas, but Mexico refused to sell. Colonization and then revolution succeeded in separating Texas from Mexico. Annexation to the United States became the next act in the political drama.

Election of 1844. In 1844 the Democratic party nominated James Knox Polk for President, and declared for the "reoccupation of Oregon and the reannexation of Texas." The first sentiment was popular in the North; the second was popular in the South. "All of Oregon or none," and "54-40 or fight" was the inviting campaign cry of the Democrats.

The Whigs nominated Henry Clay, a magnetic and very popular candidate. Their platform was silent on the question of extending our territory. In vain they tried to turn the campaign to old issues—tariff, bank, and internal improvements. The Liberty party nominated James G. Birney. Many anti-slavery Whigs thought Clay was not as firmly opposed to the annexation of Texas as he should be, so they cast their votes for Birney, thus helping the Democrats to carry northern states, and to elect Polk, who carried seven free and seven slave states.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES KNOX POLK, 1845-1849.

Polk's Plans. Polk, stern and determined in his ways, entered upon his duties as President with definite notions of



JAMES KNOX POLK.

what he wished to do. He planned to reduce the tariff, to reestablish the Independent Treasury, to settle the Oregon boundary, and to annex Texas and acquire California. He chose an able cabinet; the more important members being James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of State; William G. Marcy, of New York, Secretary of War; George Bancroft, of Massachusetts, the historian, Secretary of the Navy; Robert J. Walker of Mississippi, Secretary of the Treasury. The Sub-

treasury was reestablished, and a new tariff act, materially reducing the duties, was passed, 1846.

Settlement of the Oregon Boundary, 1846. The annexation of all of Texas meant war with Mexico, and the occupation of all of Oregon (to 50° 40') probably would have meant war with Great Britain, for England would never have consented to an act which would close her Canadian outlet to the Pacific Ocean: The annexation of slave territory was nearest Polk's heart; so he chose to take the slave territory and engage in war with a weak nation, rather than take the free territory and engage in war with a strong nation. After some negotiation, a treaty was made with Great Britain in 1846, fixing the Oregon boundary on the 49th parallel; this being a continuation of the boundary line as fixed east of the mountains in 1819. The United States thus received considerably more than half of the disputed territory. As England had well-established rights in the region by discovery, exploration and settlement, the compromise was honorable and just; but it was contrary to the platform upon which Polk was elected.

The Annexation of Texas. President Tyler, believing the result of the election in 1844 justified immediate action, began to form plans for bringing Texas into the Union. Two methods of annexation were considered—one by treaty, the other by joint resolution. A treaty would have required a two-thirds vote of the Senate to ratify it, which could not be obtained. A joint resolution required only a majority vote. This plan was adopted, and the President was given authority to invite Texas into the Union. March 3, 1845, the day before Tyler left office, he sent a messenger in haste to the Republic of Texas, with proposals for immediate union. Texas accepted, and the following December (1845), an act was passed by which—

(1) Texas was annexed to the United States as a slave state.

(2) Slavery was prohibited in that portion of Texas which lay north of $36^{\circ} 30'$:

(3) Not to exceed four new states might be formed out of Texas.

Other States Admitted. By an act of Congress, March 3, 1845, two new states, Iowa and Florida, were offered admission to the Union—one free, the other slave. Florida at once complied with the act, and was admitted the same year. Iowa, on account of some boundary trouble, was not admitted until 1846. This act still kept up the balance of power, there being now fourteen free and fourteen slave states. The admission of Texas, however, gave the slave power the advantage, but the balance was again restored, for the last time, by the admission of Wisconsin, in 1848. The Oregon Country was organized as a territory the same year, with a clause excluding slavery. The constitution of the state of Oregon (admitted 1859) excluded from the state all free persons of color.

Boundary Dispute. Texas, supported by the United States, claimed all the territory to the Rio Grande river, from its mouth to its source. Mexico, on the other hand, asserted that Texas extended only to the Nueces river, as it did when Texas was a part of Mexico. President Polk sent an army under General Zachary Taylor to occupy the disputed territory. Mexico, poor, weak, and torn with internal strife, in the face of

certain defeat sent troops to defend the unjust encroachment of the United States. The two armies met and war was the result, just as Polk had intended it should be.

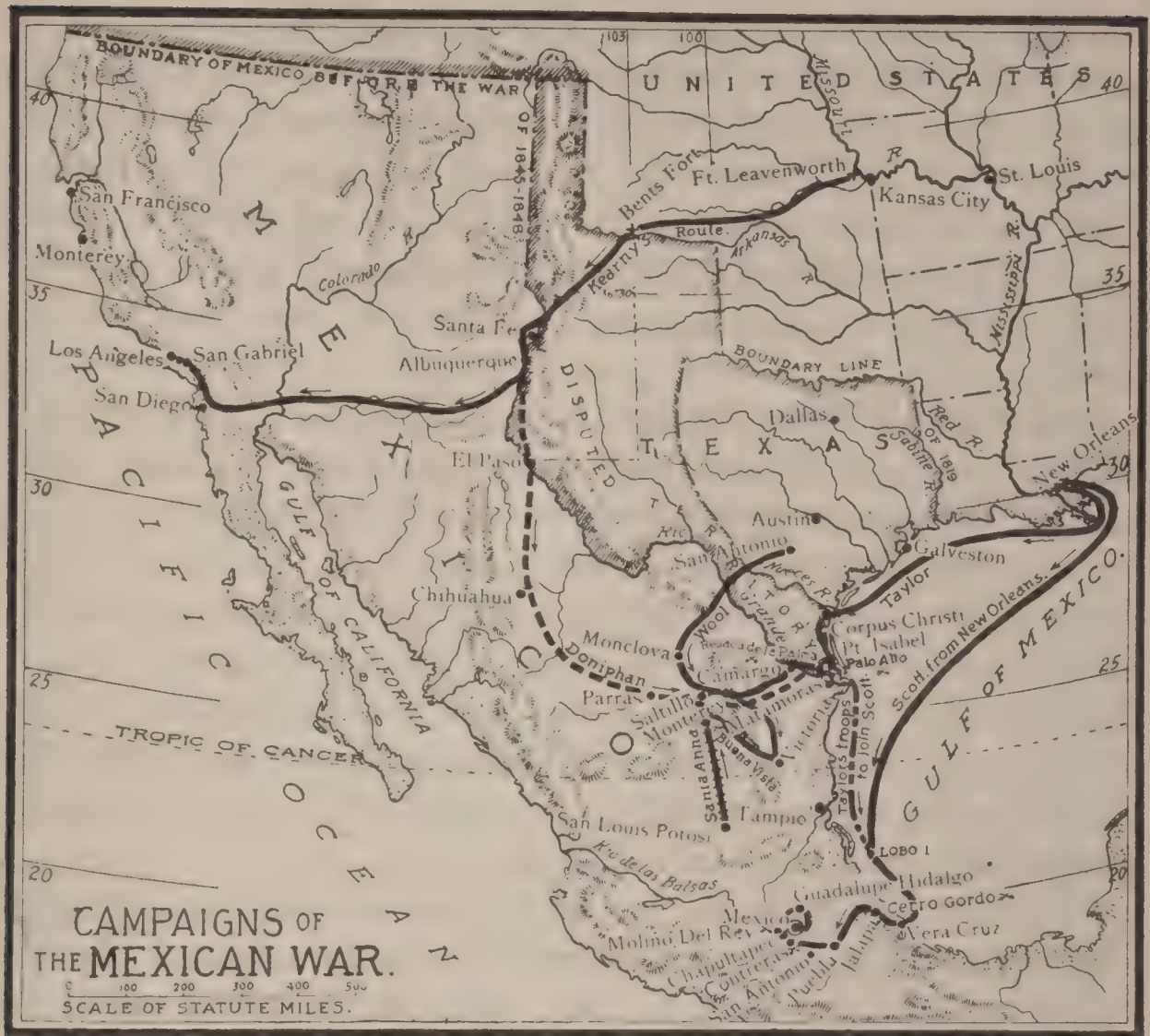
THE MEXICAN WAR.

Plans of the War. 1. General Zachary Taylor was to lead an army into the disputed territory and penetrate northern Mexico. 2. General Stephen W. Kearny was to march from Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, and take New Mexico and California. 3. California was also to be attacked by a naval force under the command, at first, of Commodore J. D. Sloat, who was soon succeeded by Commodore Robert F. Stockton. 4. General Winfield Scott in 1847 was to advance by way of Vera Cruz to capture the capital of Mexico.

Taylor's Army of Occupation, and Declaration of War. Taylor went from New Orleans (July, 1845) by water to Corpus Christi, which lies just beyond the Nueces river, in the disputed territory. President Polk sent John Slidell as envoy to negotiate with Mexico for a settlement of the dispute, but Mexico refused to recognize Slidell. Taylor then advanced to Point Isabel, at the mouth of the Rio Grande river. He built Fort Brown opposite Matamoras, and sent out a reconnoitering party under Captain Thornton, which was defeated and captured by a force of Mexicans.

When news of the capture of Thornton reached Washington, President Polk sent a message to Congress, saying, in part, that "Mexico has passed the boundary of the United States, has invaded our territory, and shed American blood on American soil." "Since war exists by the act of Mexico herself," he asked Congress "to recognize the existence of the war," and to place at his disposal means for prosecuting the war with vigor, and thus hasten the restoration of peace." On the 13th day of May, 1846, Congress passed such an act, calling for men, not to exceed 50,000, and appropriating \$10,000,000 for war purposes.

FROM PALO ALTO TO BUENA VISTA. Taylor's army accordingly marched forward, met and defeated the Mexicans under



Study the movements of the armies as follows: 1. Taylor from New Orleans to Buena Vista; 2. Kearny from Ft. Leavenworth to California and Doniphan through Chihuahua; 3. Scott from New Orleans to the city of Mexico.

General Arista at Palo Alto (May 8, 1846), and the next day completely routed them at the battle of Resaca de la Palma. He followed them across the Rio Grande and occupied Matamoros. After receiving reinforcements he pushed on to Monterey. Here the Mexicans had gathered a large force and strongly fortified the city. But after three days of continuous fighting, General Arista surrendered the place (Sept. 24, 1846). An armistice was then agreed upon for eight weeks, and 9,000 of Taylor's troops were withdrawn, by order of General Scott, to aid him in a campaign against the City of Mexico.

General Santa Anna, hearing this, marched north from San Luis Potosi with a newly organized army of 20,000 men, to destroy Taylor's greatly diminished force, which was now

eighteen miles below Saltillo. Taylor hastily fortified himself at Buena Vista, where, against great odds, with an army only one-fourth as great as Santa Anna's, he defeated the Mexicans, February 23, 1847, and won the most brilliant victory of the war. Santa Anna went to aid in the defense of Vera Cruz. Taylor, now hailed as "Old Rough and Ready," returned to the United States a military hero, and the next year was elected President.

Conquest of New Mexico and California. Colonel Stephen W. Kearny set out from Fort Leavenworth, June, 1846, with an army, with instructions to seize New Mexico and California. He followed the old Santa Fé Trail, by Bent's Fort, down to the town of Santa Fé; which he took without resistance. Declaring all New Mexico under the military rule of the United States, Kearny sent Colonel Doniphan with part of his army to the province of Chihuahua, Mexico, while he himself with the remaining troops made his way across the deserts and mountains to California.

Captain J. C. Frémont, in charge of an exploring party in California, and Commodore Sloat, in command of our Pacific squadron, received word to look after American interests in case of trouble. The settlers, fearing an attack from the Mexicans, flocked to Frémont's standard, and drove away the Mexicans under General Castro. Sloat seized San Francisco and Monterey (California). In the mean time, Commodore Robert F. Stockton arrived (July, 1846) by way of Cape Horn, and took command of all the American forces in California. Kearny, in November, 1846, completed his overland trip and joined Frémont and Stockton. After the decisive battle of San Gabriel (Jan. 8, 1847), the Mexicans made no further serious resistance, and the entire province of California came under the control of the United States.*

Scott's Campaign. While Taylor was closing his brilliant campaign at Buena Vista and California was being brought

* The American settlers in California carried a flag upon which was painted the grizzly bear, and declared themselves independent of Mexico. The Republic until formally annexed to the United States was called the "Bear Flag Republic."

under the protection of the American flag, Winfield Scott, General-in-Chief, was on his way from New Orleans, by water, with an army to penetrate the heart of Mexico, capture the capital city, and dictate terms of peace. With a force of 12,000 men he landed at Vera Cruz, and after a fierce bombardment received the surrender of the city, March 29, 1847. Flushed with victory, the American army set out for the ancient capital of Mexico, over the same route which Cortez and his little band had taken more than three hundred years before. At Cerro Gordo* Scott defeated Santa Anna, then captured Jalapa, Puebla, and on the 10th of August came in sight of the strongly fortified City of Mexico. In rapid succession, he assailed and defeated the Mexicans at Contreras (kŏn-trā'-rās), Churubusco (chōō-rōō-boōs'-kō), Molino del Rey (mō-lē'-nō-dēl-rā'), and Chapultepec (chä-pool'-tā-pĕk'), and on the 14th of September made a triumphal entry into the city.

Conclusions. The Mexicans were brave, and fought with desperate courage. They lacked discipline, equipment, and intelligence. Theirs was a fight for honor and principle, with certain defeat in the end, and they employed their meager means as best they could.

The American plan was comprehensive, and carried out without the loss of a single battle. But the war was begun largely for the purpose of acquiring territory on which to extend slavery. For this reason, there was much opposition to the war in the North, especially among the Whigs and Free-Soilers. Yet the two commanders, Zachary Taylor and Winfield Scott, were both Whigs.

Probably no one now would wish to undo the results of the war. Motives which actuated it were followed by broader, better and more humane principles in governing the territory acquired, so that much good came out of seeming evil.

Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo, and Results of the War. A large portion of Mexico was in possession of the United States.

* In the battle of Cerro Gordo, Santa Anna lost 1,000 killed and wounded and 3,000 prisoners. He made a narrow escape on a mule, leaving his private papers and his cork leg.

The Mexican government was helpless, and was forced to rely entirely upon the magnanimity of our government for terms of peace. A treaty was signed February 2, 1848, at Gaudalupe-Hidalgo, by the peace commissioners. By this treaty—

1. The Rio Grande river was made the southern boundary of the United States, and Mexico ceded to us California and all her territory* eastward to the Louisiana Purchase. (See map, p. 319.)

2. The United States paid \$15,000,000 to Mexico, and assumed the debt claimed by American citizens against Mexico, amounting to \$3,250,000.

THE WILMOT PROVISIO, 1846. In August, 1846, the President asked Congress for an appropriation of \$2,000,000 “for the settlement of the boundary question with Mexico.” He expected to purchase the territory desired and to bring the war to a close. David Wilmot, a Democratic Congressman from Pennsylvania, offered an amendment prohibiting slavery in all territory to be acquired from Mexico. With the support of the Whigs and anti-slavery Democrats it passed the House, but was rejected by the Senate. The next year a bill appropriating \$3,000,000 for the same purpose was passed without the slavery provision.

Election of 1848, and Formation of Free-Soil Party.

The Whigs nominated a southern man and a slaveholder, Zachary Taylor, from Louisiana, for President. But the Democrats, who had started the Mexican War to get more slave territory, now nominated Lewis Cass, from the free state of Michigan. A large portion of the Whigs were opposed to slavery, yet they feared to take a direct stand against it. In their nominating convention (1848), both parties opposed all reference to slavery in their party platforms.

* EXTENT OF TERRITORY. The new territory included the present states of California, Nevada and Utah; also all of New Mexico and Arizona excepting the Gadsden Purchase, the southwestern parts of Wyoming and Kansas, a large portion of Colorado, and the western part of Oklahoma (see map, p. 319), in addition to Texas. The territory ceded at the close of the war amounted to 526,000 square miles. The Republic of Texas included about 390,000 square miles. The total area is over 900,000 square miles. This is more than thirteen times the size of New England and eleven times the size of Kansas, and larger than the present Republic of Mexico.

This was distasteful to the anti-slavery element; so the anti-slavery Whigs and the anti-slavery Democrats combined with the Liberty party to form a new party called the Free-Soil party. Delegates met at Buffalo and nominated Martin Van Buren for President and Charles Francis Adams for Vice-President. In their platform they said: 1. They would not interfere with slavery where it already existed. 2. There must be "no more slave states and no more slave territory," and "no more compromises with slavery." 3. "We inscribe on our banner, 'Free soil, free speech, free labor, and free men.' "

The character of the contest became largely personal, in which Taylor, the hero of Buena Vista, proved the favorite. He was elected, and Millard Fillmore became Vice-President.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What claims had the United States on Texas? What settlements were made there by Americans? What caused a revolution in Texas? Give the result. What four nations at one time claimed the Oregon Country? Give an account of emigration from the East to Oregon. What prompted a strong effort to annex Texas? What attitude did the political parties take in 1844 on the annexation of territory? What definite things did Polk hope to accomplish? How was the Oregon boundary settled? Give an account of the annexation of Texas, and the result. Describe the territory in dispute. What did Polk do to hold the disputed land? Give the plans of the war. What was the Army of Occupation? Tell of Taylor's campaign; of Palo Alto, Monterey, and Buena Vista. Tell of Kearny's campaign. Tell of the "Bear Flag Republic." What treaty closed the war? Give its terms. What lands were gained by the United States? Was the war a just war? Why, or why not? What was the Wilmot Proviso?

Tell something of Moses Austin, Stephen F. Austin, Sam Houston, Marcus Whitman, James G. Birney, Zachary Taylor, Winfield Scott, Santa Anna, Stephen W. Kearny, John C. Frémont, David Wilmot.

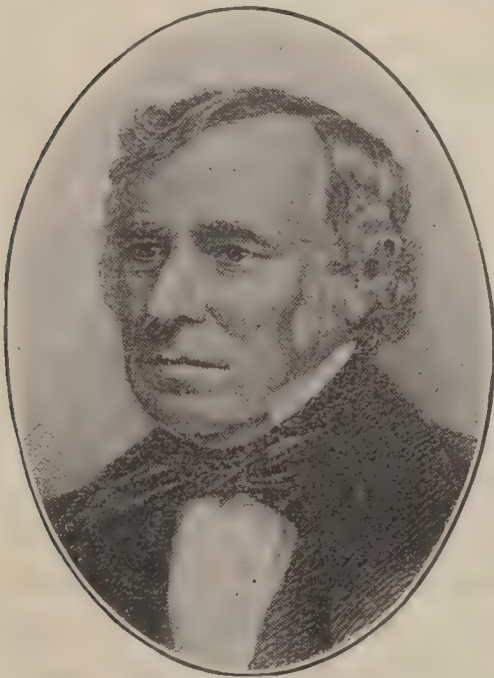
Write an outline of the chapter.

CHAPTER XXV.

QUESTIONS ARISING OUT OF THE ANNEXATION OF TERRITORY.

ADMINISTRATION OF ZACHARY TAYLOR AND
MILLARD FILLMORE, 1849-1853.

Problems of Congress. There were no laws governing the territory acquired as a result of the Mexican War, except as those of Mexico might be recognized or military rule enforced. It was important that Congress should act promptly. The views of the North and South had become so antagonistic on the slavery question that a long and bitter struggle ensued before any laws could be made for the territory. Meanwhile the discovery of gold in California, an accidental event, completely upset the calculations of the most sagacious politicians by starting a great stream of free-state settlers to California.

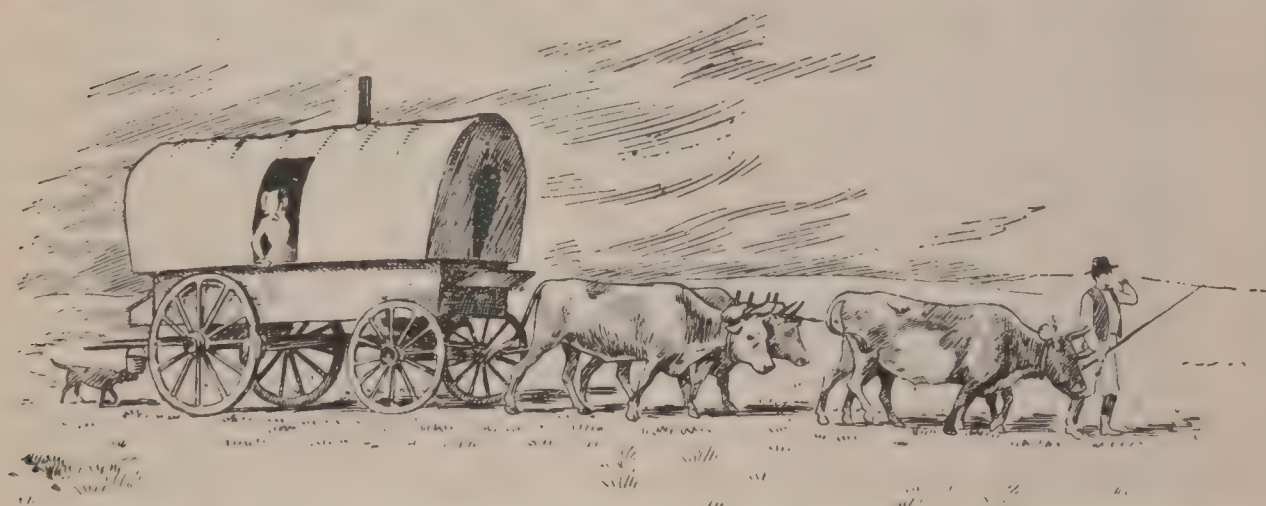


ZACHARY TAYLOR.

Discovery of Gold, 1848. While John W. Marshall early in 1848 was digging a race-way for a new sawmill in the valley of the American river near the present site of Sacramento, for a Swiss settler named Sutter, he discovered a yellow, shining substance in the sand. He took some of the glittering grains to Captain Sutter, who pronounced them gold. An effort was made to keep the discovery a secret, but the news leaked out, and spread with wonderful rapidity. A wild rush was made for the gold-fields. Men left the lumber camp, the flocks

and herds, the stores and farms, and went to search for the precious metal.

"FORTY-NINERS." The news spread to the East. People left their homes by thousands. Men from all classes and professions joined in the rush for the gold-fields. Ships of every available sort were pressed into service, carrying passengers around South America. Some of the "argonauts" went by way of the Isthmus of Panama, while thousands journeyed in wagons over the Oregon and Santa Fé trails. Great wagon-trains, miles in length, wended their weary way over these long, difficult routes, exposed to great hardships, privations,



FORTY-NINERS.

and dangers. Hundreds of persons died on the way, but at least 80,000 reached California in a single year, and San Francisco changed from a village to a city of 20,000. Food was scarce and prices became exorbitant. Disorder and crime were common, as there was no law save the rough code of the mining camp. "Vigilance committees" were formed, however, and by dealing promptly and summarily with criminals they did much to restore order and peace.

RESULTS. 1st. The discovery of gold led to the rapid settlement of the Pacific coast with a lot of energetic and hardy men. 2nd. It put a vast amount of gold into circulation,* which stim-

* The gold yield of the United States, largely from California, increased from \$890,000 in 1847 to \$10,000,000 in 1848; to \$40,000,000 in 1849; to \$50,000,000 in 1850; to \$55,000,000 in 1851; to \$60,000,000 in 1852; to \$65,000,000 in 1853.

At first the gold was mostly taken from the beds of streams by sifting the sand from the

ulated trade, industry, and commerce. 3rd. The rapid settle-



SIFTING FOR GOLD.

ment made a demand for speedy transportation between California and the East, and twenty years later the Pacific Railroad was built. 4th. The settlers were mostly from the North, and within a year they formed a constitution, and asked admission to the Union as a free state.

Disputes About Slavery. When Congress met, in December, 1849, the question of providing a government for the territory acquired from Mexico overshadowed all others. California wished to become a free state, and New Mexico inclined toward freedom. With the deepest chagrin the South saw the fruits of the Mexican conquest ripening for those who opposed the war rather than for those who incited it. The North wished to exclude slavery from the whole territory. Many in the South wished the entire territory left open to slavery, while others wished to extend the Missouri Compromise line of 1820 ($36^{\circ} 30'$) to the Pacific. Sectional feeling ran high. The discussions became violently bitter, and threatened to disrupt the Union.

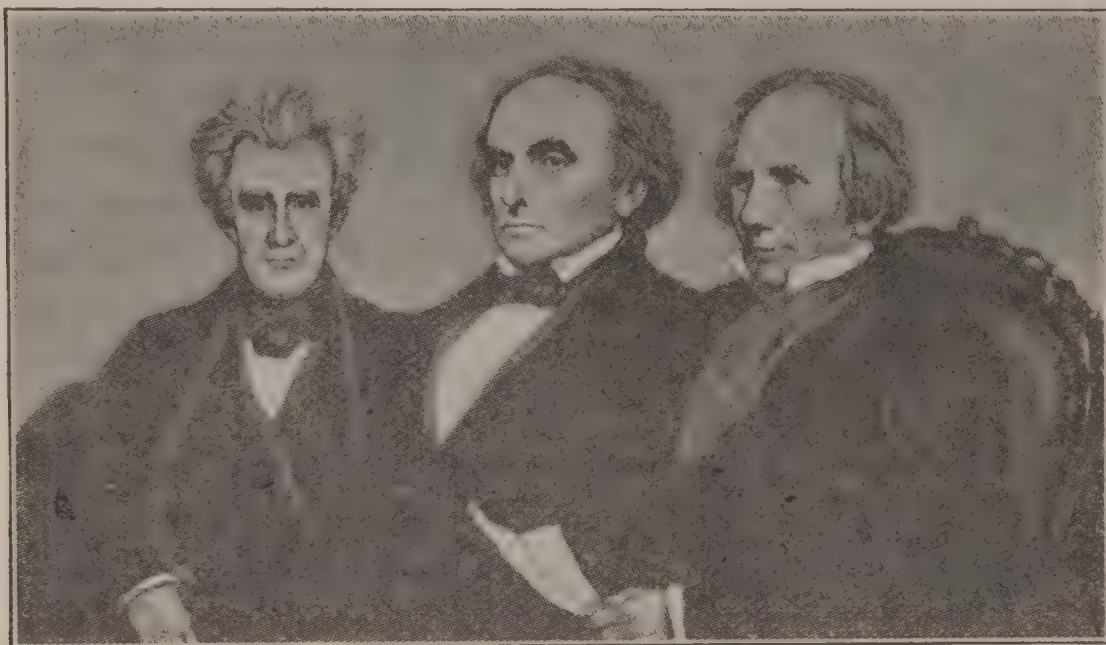
Great Debates in Congress. Henry Clay, the great peacemaker, now came forward with a compromise by offering a series of eight resolutions* in the Senate, January, 1850, covering the various points of dispute between the North and South on the slavery question. A great debate followed. Webster, Clay, Calhoun and Seward were the leaders.

Clay hoped that each section might be brought to yield part of its claims, in order that peace might be secured and the Union

gold. When the surface-mining gave out, men cut down hills and turned strong streams of water on, washing the dirt and gravel away while the heavier gold collected in pockets. Most of the gold mined in California now is obtained by crushing quartz rock and then separating the gold from it by a chemical process.

* The resolutions were referred to a committee of thirteen, of which Clay was chairman. They reported to the Senate practically what Clay had recommended in his resolutions. The different items were taken up and passed by Congress in three different bills. These constituted the Compromise of 1850.

preserved. For two days he addressed the Senate, saying in part: "Let me say to the North and to the South what husband and wife say to each other: 'We have mutual faults; neither of us is perfect; nothing in the form of humanity is perfect. Let us be kind to each other, forbearing, forgiving each other's faults, and, above all, let us live in happiness and peace together.' " With great persuasion and eloquence he pleaded for the compromise and the preservation of the Union.



THREE GREAT ORATORS AND PARTY LEADERS.
John C. Calhoun, Daniel Webster, and Henry Clay.

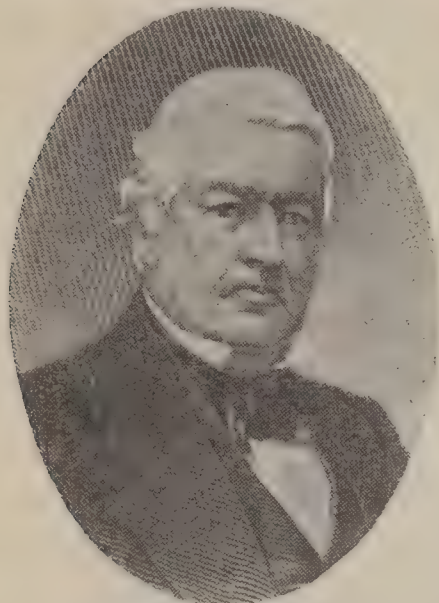
Webster, in one of the greatest speeches of his life, supported Clay. He spoke for the "Union and the Constitution." In his efforts to pacify the South, he asked the North to stop the slavery agitation and make a better law for the return of fugitive slaves. This "7th of March Speech" was very offensive to the free states.

Calhoun* opposed the Compromise and made a strong plea for the South and slavery. He and his followers made open and positive threats that the South would leave the Union unless they were given: (1st) At least an equal division of the new territory for slavery; (2nd) Better laws for the return of

* Both Clay and Calhoun were old and feeble, actually battling with death. Clay was too feeble to walk up the capitol steps alone, and Calhoun too weak to deliver his own speech. A fellow-senator read it for him.

fugitive slaves; (3rd) Assurance that the anti-slavery agitation would be stopped.

Seward opposed all compromise and all slavery extension.



MILLARD FILLMORE.

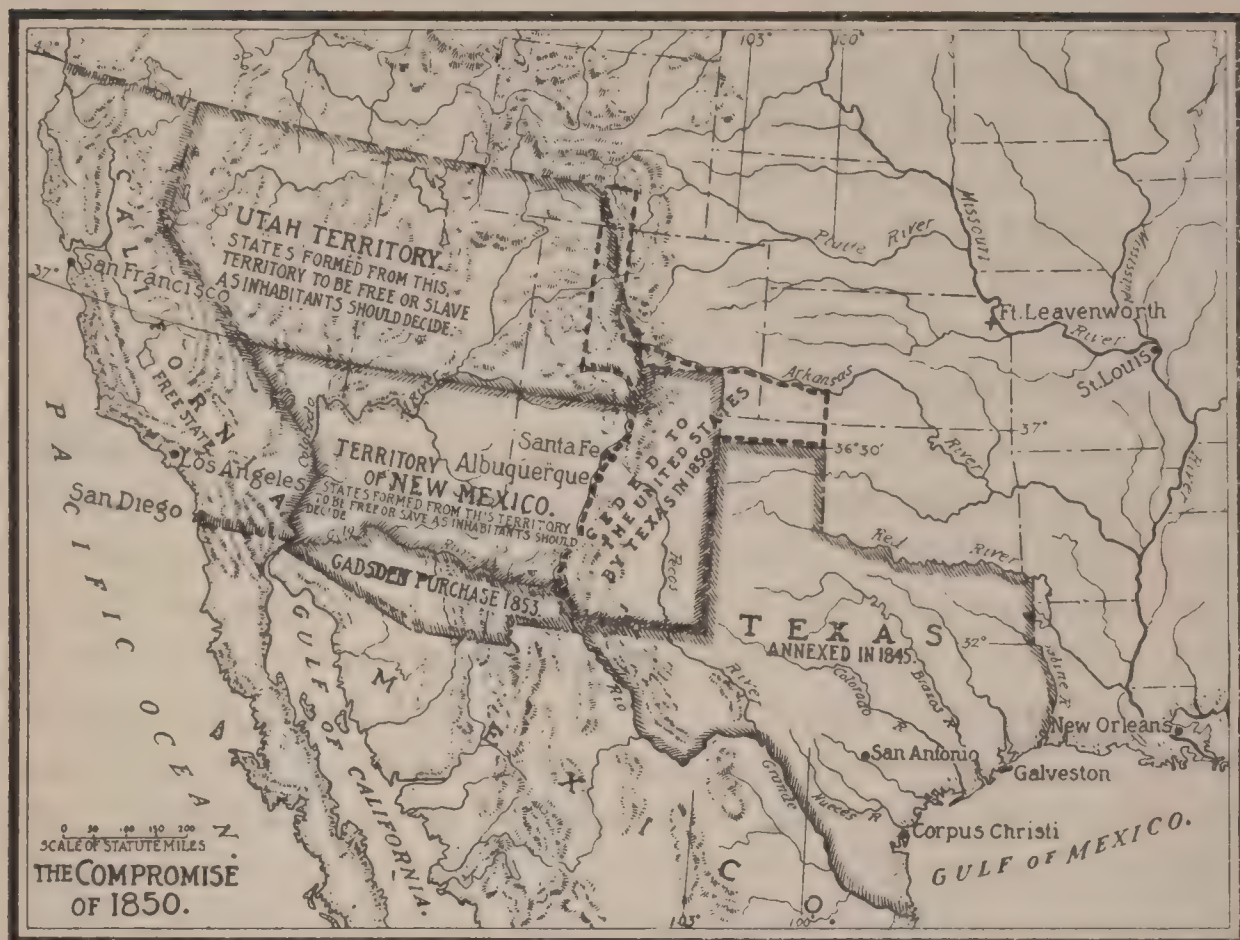
He favored the admission of California as a free state, as the President did, without attaching other slave matters to the act. He asserted that not only the Constitution but a "higher law" (the moral law), made the territories free. In the midst of the turmoil Taylor died, July 9, 1850, and Millard Fillmore became President. In September Clay's measures, called the Compromise of 1850, or the Omnibus Bill, were enacted into law.

The Compromise of 1850 included several important matters :

1. California was admitted as a free state.
2. Utah and New Mexico were organized as territories, and the states later to be formed out of them were to be free or slave as the inhabitants in each territory should decide.
3. The slave trade (not slavery) was forever prohibited in the District of Columbia.
4. A more stringent fugitive slave law was passed for capturing and returning runaway slaves.
5. Texas was to be paid \$10,000,000 for her claims on New Mexico.
6. Not more than four new states might be formed out of Texas.

The Fugitive Slave Law and the Personal Liberty Laws.

Everyone hoped that peace and harmony would again be restored between the North and South, but the relief was only temporary. The Fugitive Slave Law gave officers the right to take any negro, and return him to the person who claimed him as an escaped slave, without allowing him to testify in his own behalf. The law also made it the duty of citizens to assist in the capture and return of runaway slaves. Many people



A map showing California, Utah, New Mexico, Texas after the year 1850, and the territory sold by Texas to the Government. Utah Territory extended from California to the mountain-crest between parallels 37 and 42. The Territory of New Mexico extended from California to Texas, south of Utah, and a section of the 38th parallel.

in the North refused to obey the law. Most of the northern state legislatures passed *Personal Liberty Laws*, which were intended to prevent free negroes from being carried away into slavery on the claim that they were fugitive slaves. These laws required the negro should be given a fair trial by jury.

Underground Railroads. Many of the slaves tried to gain freedom by escaping from their masters to Canada or to some safe place in the North. If the master, who usually put "slave-hunters" on the trail, could find the slave anywhere in the North, he could by law have him seized and returned; but in Canada he was free. Many people opposed to slavery secretly aided in the escape of slaves. There were regular routes leading through the North. Trusted persons would conceal the slave until he could be taken out or sent to the next party on the route, who would in turn care for him until he could with safety be sent to the next station. There

were a number of these routes, which were called the "Underground Railroad," as the plan of conducting the slaves to freedom was usually carried on by night. Thousands of slaves secured their liberty in this way. The members of the Underground Railroad system believed in the Higher Law,—the Divine law of justice and freedom, and chose to assist in the escape of the slave rather than to aid in his capture.

Deaths: Calhoun, Clay, and Webster. Three of the great men of this period died during Fillmore's administration: John C. Calhoun, March 31, 1850; Henry Clay, June 29, 1852; and Daniel Webster, October 24, 1852. They were statesmen and great orators, and impressed themselves upon the life of the nation. Calhoun was the great leader for state rights, nullification, and slavery. Clay was the great peacemaker, ever pleading for harmony between the North and South, and Webster was the great expounder of the Constitution. No greater oratory has ever been heard in the halls of Congress than fell from the lips of these men. Calhoun, Clay and Webster aspired to be President, and were bitterly disappointed because they failed in this ambition.

Election of 1852. The Democratic party nominated Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire and William R. King of Alabama, and indorsed the Compromise of 1850. The Whigs were somewhat divided as to candidates and party principles, but finally indorsed the Compromise of 1850 and nominated Winfield Scott, of Virginia, hoping that his war record would help to secure his election. Leaders in both parties wished to keep down further slavery agitation. The Free-Soil party denounced the Compromise of 1850, called slavery "a sin against God, a crime against man," and declared for "free soil, free speech, free labor, and free men." Pierce carried twenty-seven out of thirty-one states, and became President.* William R. King became Vice-President, but died about a month after his inauguration.

Gadsden Purchase, 1853. Not long after the treaty of peace was concluded, trouble again occurred with Mexico over

* Scott carried Massachusetts, Vermont, Tennessee, and Kentucky.

the location of the boundary line between Mexico and the United States in the region of the Gila river. The United States was especially anxious to secure this territory, as it offered the most available route to the Pacific for a proposed railroad. Through the efforts of James Gadsden, our minister to Mexico, a treaty was made with that country by which the United States paid Mexico \$10,000,000 for the territory* which lies between the Gila river and the present boundary of Mexico.

* The Gadsden Purchase included 47,330 acres, an area equal to that of the state of New York.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

As a result of the Mexican War, what problems confronted Congress? Tell of the discovery of gold in California, and give the results. Who were the "Forty-niners"? Why did the discussions on the slavery question become so prominent at this time? What were the different views relative to slavery in the new territory? What was the Compromise of 1850? Give its provisions. What was the "Underground Railroad"? Who were the members of the Underground system? What three statesmen were prominent at this time, and what was the attitude of each on the slavery question? Why did none become President? Tell of the Gadsden Purchase.

Write an outline of the chapter. What dates and what facts should be remembered? Write the names of six men named in the chapter, and tell something of each. Color a map showing Texas, Utah, New Mexico, and California.

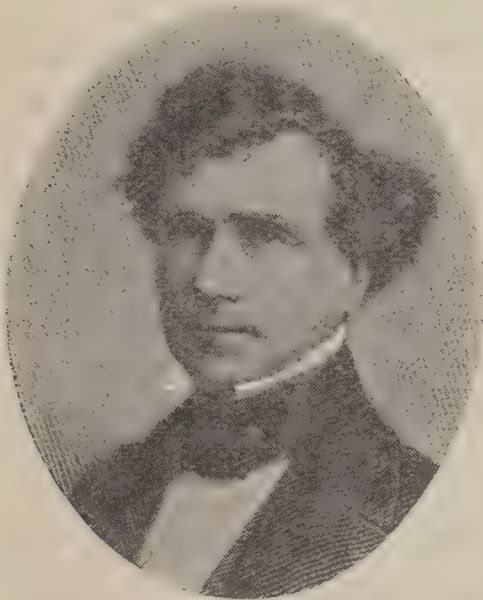
CHAPTER XXVI.

THE APPROACHING CRISIS.

PERIOD OF POPULAR SOVEREIGNTY.

ADMINISTRATION OF FRANKLIN PIERCE, 1853-1857.

Our First World's Fair. In 1853 a World's Fair was held in New York, at which exhibits of the products, inventions and industries from all of the civilized countries in the world were placed in a beautiful and spacious building called the "Crystal Palace." This was the first of a series of great World's Fairs held in this country, which have shown the progress in the industries, sciences, and arts.



FRANKLIN PIERCE.

Commodore Perry Opens the Ports of Japan, 1852-1854. Japan had for centuries been closed to the commerce of civilized nations except the Dutch. The settlement of California and Oregon made it de-

sirable to extend our commerce with Asia and to establish a coaling station on the Japan islands, as well as to secure commercial privileges with that country. With these ends in view, Commodore M. C. Perry, a brother of Oliver H. Perry, set sail in 1852 with a fleet of war-vessels. His arrival in Yeddo Bay, Japan, threw the Japanese into a panic. Fearing a foreign invasion, they warned him not to come any nearer, but Perry succeeded in convincing them that he had come on a mission of peace and good-will, and not for war or conquest. In the spring of 1854, a treaty of friendship and commerce was made. Our trade and friendly intercourse have not been interrupted since,

while Japan has surprised the world by the eagerness with which she has adopted the ways and customs of the Western Hemisphere.

The Martin Koszta Affair, 1854. Martin Koszta was a leader in the Hungarian revolt against Austria, 1849. The revolt failing, he came to the United States, and took out the first papers to become a citizen. Then he returned to Europe, and, being seized, claimed protection as a citizen of the United States, under whose passport he was traveling. Our country supported his claim, but after securing his release, adopted the policy of giving passports to none but native-born or fully naturalized citizens. This affair is of importance because it led to a better understanding as to a nation's rights and duties in relation to visiting foreigners.

Filibustering Expeditions, 1850-1860. Meanwhile the question of slavery continued to be a disturbing factor in national affairs. Several venturesome characters, heeding the demands of the South for more slave territory, organized bands of men to invade Mexico, Central America and Cuba for the purpose of conquest.

One of these, William Walker, made three different attempts of this character: the first in Mexico, where he was defeated; the second, from New Orleans to Nicaragua, where he met with temporary success; but in the third expedition he was court-martialed and shot by the government of Honduras (1860).

General Lopez, a member of the Cuban revolutionary party, came to the United States and organized bands of men to assist in the overthrow of Spanish rule in Cuba. His first attempt was foiled by President Taylor. Later he eluded the government, and led several hundred men, mostly Americans, to Cuba, where he was defeated by the Spanish authorities, and he and a number of his followers were shot. All protection of our government is denied to American citizens who with warlike intent invade the territory of another nation; but when a law-abiding citizen is denied any right, the government with its power comes to his rescue.

Ostend Manifesto, 1854. Many political leaders in the South desired to annex Cuba in order that another slave state

might be formed. Efforts were made to purchase the island, but without success. Polk, in 1848, thought of offering \$100,000,000 for it. Later, President Pierce directed Mr. Soulé, our minister to Spain, to try to secure Cuba, but he failed to cajole the Spanish government into parting with it. In 1854 our ministers to Spain, France and England met at Ostend, Belgium, and issued what is known as the "Ostend Manifesto." They declared that Cuba ought to belong to the United States, and if Spain refused to sell it, the United States would, "by every law, human and divine, be justified in taking it by force." This attempt to rob Spain of the island created such a storm of opposition in Europe and the United States that no effort was made to carry out the manifesto.

"Uncle Tom's Cabin." Opposition to slavery was greatly intensified by the publication of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" (1852),



HARRIET BEECHER STOWE.

written by Harriet Beecher Stowe, sister of Henry Ward Beecher, the great preacher. It was a book of fiction, but portrayed the character and condition of the slaves so vividly that the people in the North accepted it as true to fact. "Topsy," "Eva," and "Uncle Tom" became real characters. The book appealed to the sympathy, stirred the imagination, and had a great effect in creating sentiment against slavery. Within a year

more than 500,000 copies were sold. The pro-slavery people denounced the book, and in some places in the South prohibited its sale. William Lloyd Garrison wrote to Mrs. Stowe: "All defenders of slavery have let me alone and are abusing you."

"The Impending Crisis." In the South there were a great many "poor whites," who had no slaves and no interest in slavery. One of their number, Hinton R. Helper, of North Carolina, published a book called "The Impending Crisis," in which he showed the great economic burden slavery imposed on the South. He bitterly assailed the slaveholding aristocracy,

and pleaded for the interests of the "poor whites," who had little hope for advancement while they were forced to put their labor in competition with that of slaves. "The Impending Crisis," like "Uncle Tom's Cabin," had a great effect on the slavery agitation. Had the "poor whites" understood this book and the real nature of the war, it is probable that few of their number would have fought for slavery.

The Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 1854. While the filibusters and the authors of the Ostend Manifesto were trying to seize



The Territory of Kansas was bounded on the north by the 40th parallel or Nebraska; on the east by Missouri; on the south by the 37th parallel to the 103d meridian; thence north to the 38th parallel; thence west to the crest of the mountains; on the west by the crest of the mountains.

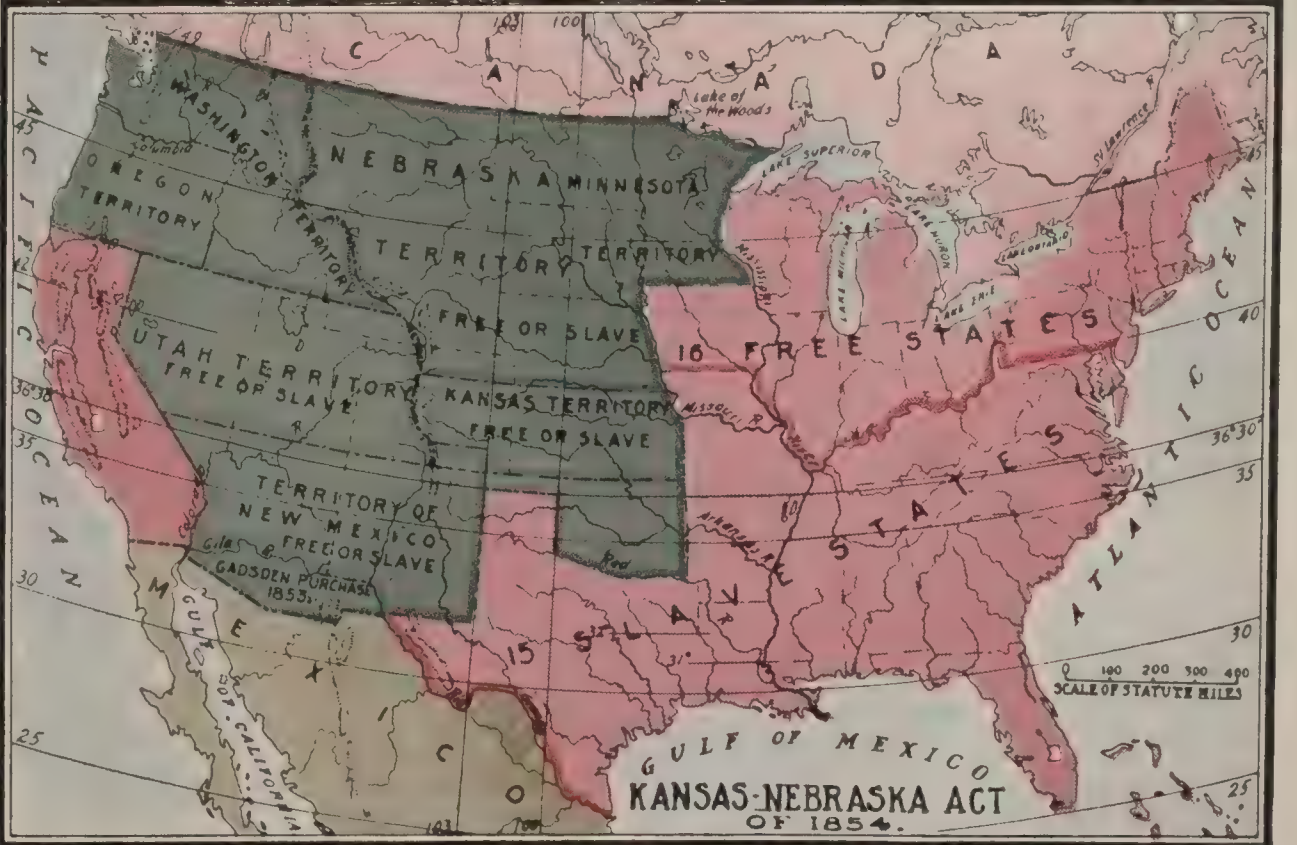
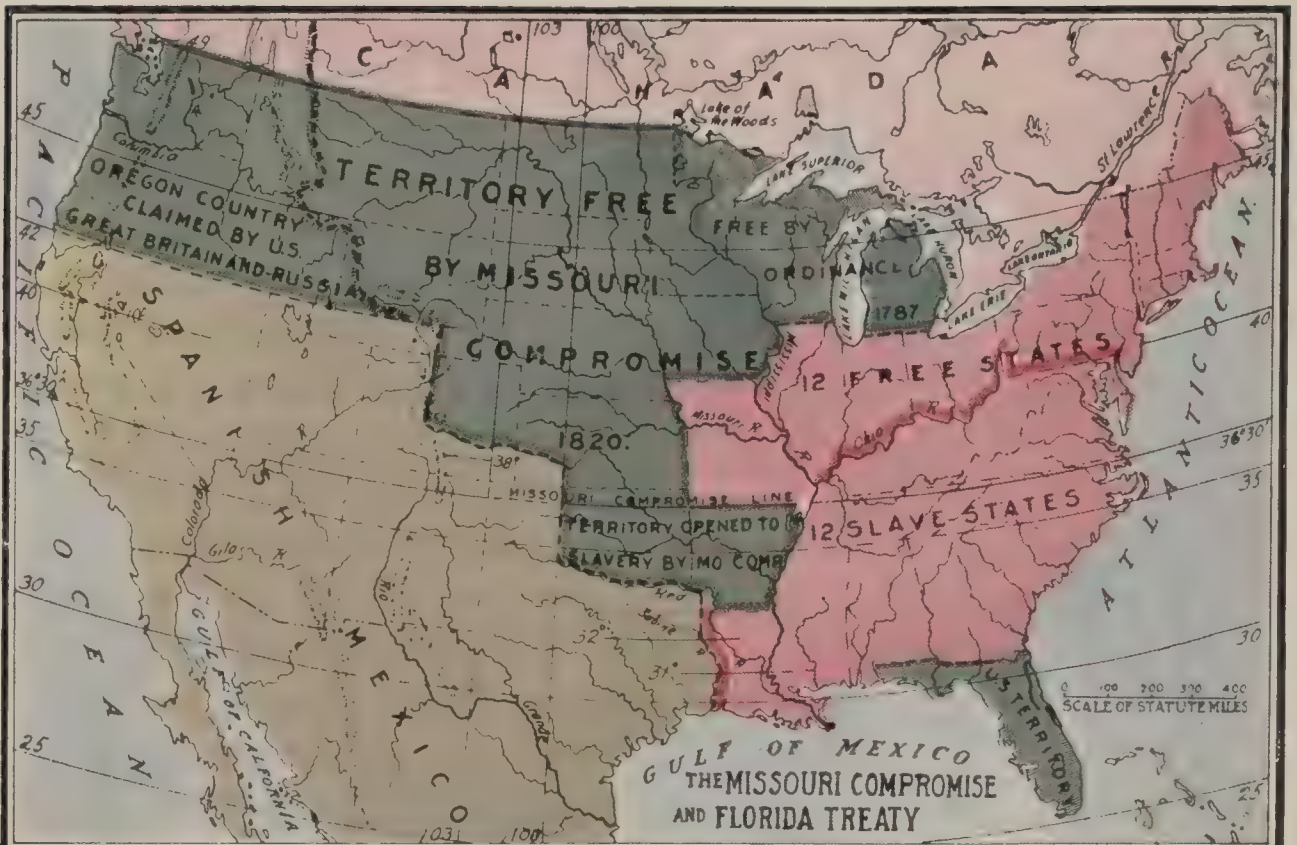
Nebraska Territory included the land between Kansas and the 49th parallel, extending from the Missouri river to the mountain-crest.

slave territory in southern lands, efforts were being made to extend slavery into the North.

In 1854 Stephen A. Douglas, Democratic senator from Illinois, introduced a bill into the United States Senate which provided for the organization of two territories, one Kansas and the other Nebraska, in which the residents of each territory should decide whether the state or states to be formed out of that territory should be free or slave. This was called the doctrine of "Popular Sovereignty" or "Squatter Sovereignty,"* first introduced by the Compromise of 1850 in the territorial acts of Utah and New Mexico. The Kansas-Nebraska Act was passed May 30, 1854. It repealed the Missouri Compromise and threw open to slavery a vast region from which, by the terms of the Missouri Compromise, slavery had been "forever prohibited." This renewed the slavery agitation between the North and the South in a most violent form. Many who hitherto had looked with indifference on the existence of slavery in the South became deeply concerned when they saw that determined efforts were being made to push this evil into the North. Pulpit, press and platform became more active than ever before.

Struggle in Kansas. Adjoining the slave state of Missouri, Kansas was more susceptible to the influence and control of the slave-owners of the South than was the more northern territory of Nebraska. The Abolitionists and Free-Soilers of the North made strenuous efforts to overcome this, by aiding in every way the settlement of Kansas by men of their belief. Thus Kansas became the battle-ground between the forces of freedom and slavery. Emigrants flocked in from the North to make Kansas a free state, and men came from the South to make it slave. The pro-slavery men of Missouri founded the towns of Leavenworth, Atchison, and Lecompton. Many of them, retaining their homes in Missouri, would cross and recross the border line, bringing with them hordes of adventurers to aid in the voting and fighting. In the territorial election in the spring of 1855, over 6,000 votes were counted, nearly 5,000 of which were illegal, being cast for slavery by non-residents of

* "Squatter" was the name given to a person who first settled on government land. Sovereignty means supreme, self-ruling. Squatter Sovereignty meant that the settlers should determine the slavery question for themselves.



the territory. These fraudulent votes elected a delegate to Congress, and members of the legislature, which met first at Pawnee, in Davis county (now Geary), then at Shawnee Mission, Johnson county, three miles from Westport, Missouri. This "bogus" legislature adopted in the main the laws of Missouri, but provided the death penalty for nearly fifty offenses against slavery.

Lecompton was made the capital. Andrew J. Reeder was appointed the first territorial governor by President Pierce, but as Reeder did not indorse the high-handed methods of the pro-slavery leaders, he was removed and Wilson Shannon was appointed in his place.

EMIGRANT AID SOCIETY. It indeed looked gloomy for the free-soil people. But the Emigrant Aid Society, organized by Eli Thayer, of Massachusetts, had been piloting anti-slavery settlers to the territory. These settlers founded Lawrence, Topeka, and Osawatomie. Other societies were formed to aid in the work, and soon a stream of free-soil immigrants was pouring into Kansas. When the Missourians blockaded the way through their state, a route through Iowa and Nebraska was chosen.

THE TOPEKA CONSTITUTION. The anti-slavery people met at Topeka, October, 1855, and formed a free-state constitution, elected state officers, and applied to Congress for admission to the Union as a free state.

RIVAL GOVERNMENTS AND CIVIL WAR IN KANSAS. Thus there were two rival governments in the territory. Congress had to approve the constitution before the territory could become a state.* In the House a majority favored the Topeka

* While the Kansas question was under discussion in the United States Senate Charles Sumner made a speech, May 22, 1856, on the "Crime against Kansas." In the heat of debate he severely denounced slavery and slaveholders. He spoke with special severity of Senator Butler, of South Carolina. Two days later, after the Senate had adjourned, and while Sumner was sitting at his desk at work, Representative Preston S. Brooks, of South Carolina, a relative of Butler, beat Sumner over the head with a heavy cane until he was unconscious. Sumner never fully recovered from this assault, and did not return to active life for several years. Massachusetts kept his seat vacant, however, until he was able to occupy it again. Brooks, and Lawrence M. Keith who accompanied him, should have been expelled from the House, but only a vote of censure was passed upon them. They resigned, however, and at once were reelected by the state of South Carolina. The brutal assault made the North indignant and more determined, while the pro-slavery politicians professed to believe that Sumner received his just deserts.

constitution, but a majority in the Senate opposed it. President Pierce assisted the pro-slavery leaders in every way possible, and with his approval troops were sent to disperse the Topeka legislature.

Wild scenes of disorder were enacted in the territory. Men were shot, houses burned, and property destroyed. A pro-slavery party plundered and burned Osawatomie; a large party of Missourians sacked Lawrence, and burned part of the town. Free-state people retaliated under the leadership of such men as John Brown and Captain Harvey. Murder and bloodshed were so common that "Bleeding Kansas" became a common name for the territory.

On September 9, 1856, John W. Geary, who was fair-minded and capable, became Governor, intending to deal justly with both Anti-Slavery and Pro-Slavery parties. By energetic action he dispersed the armed bands in the territory and established a season of peace, which was soon dispelled by the violent action of the Pro-Slavery legislature which met at Lecompton. Its members began a bitter quarrel with Geary, and compelled him to seek safety by leaving the territory.

THE LECOMPTON CONSTITUTION. The pro-slavery convention met at Lecompton in the fall of 1857, and made a constitution favoring slavery.* This was rejected by the people at the polls by a decisive majority.

THE LEAVENWORTH CONSTITUTION. While the Lecompton convention was in session, the election for members of the territorial legislature was held. It resulted in a victory for the free-state people. A convention was called which framed the Leavenworth constitution, prohibiting slavery. The Attorney-General of the United States declared the resolution calling the convention void. Thus, the third attempt to form a state constitution failed.

* The constitution when first submitted to the people provided that the vote should be taken on the "constitution with slavery" or on the "constitution without slavery," no vote being allowed against the constitution. The anti-slavery people would not vote on the question when stated in this way; so the constitution was adopted by the pro-slavery vote. When the anti-slavery legislature met it presented the question in this way: Will you or will you not have this constitution with slavery? The free-state people then voted, and rejected the Lecompton constitution.

THE WYANDOTTE CONSTITUTION ADOPTED. In 1859 the people voted to call a new constitutional convention, which met at Wyandotte (now Kansas City, Kansas), July 5, 1859. It was composed of thirty-five Republicans and seventeen Democrats. A constitution prohibiting slavery was adopted and approved by the people by a large majority.

The Senate, still under the influence of the slave power, would not ratify the Wyandotte constitution. But on January 21, 1861, Jefferson Davis and other southern senators, by withdrawing from the Senate, left a Republican majority. The same day, on motion of William H. Seward, the Senate passed the bill for ratification; on the 29th, the President signed it and Kansas became a free state.

Squatter Sovereignty proved a costly experiment, for many hardships were endured, two million dollars' worth of property was destroyed, and several hundred lives sacrificed; but it all ended at last in the interest of freedom.

Organization of New Parties, and Election of 1856.

THE REPUBLICAN. The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act and the trend of the slavery question led to the reconstruction of political parties. All persons opposed to the extension of slavery united to form a new national party (1856) called the Republican party. It brought under its banner the anti-slavery Whigs, anti-slavery Democrats, and members of the Free-Soil party. The Republicans nominated John C. Frémont of California and William L. Dayton of New Jersey as standard-bearers, on a platform which favored the immediate admission of Kansas as a free state, and measures to prohibit in the territories "those twin relics of barbarism, polygamy and slavery."

THE DEMOCRATS named James Buchanan of Pennsylvania and John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky, and indorsed the Kansas-Nebraska Act and policy of "Non-interference by Congress with slavery in state or territory."

KNOW-NOTHING. Another new party, called the American or "Know-Nothing" party, was formed, and held its first national convention in 1856. It tried to draw the attention

of the people away from the violent slavery agitation by pointing out the dangers of the foreign element in American politics. Advocating the policy of "America for Americans," it wished all offices to be filled by native-born Americans. Millard Fillmore was nominated for President. The remnant of the Whig party also nominated Fillmore.

In the election which followed, Buchanan received 174 electoral votes, Frémont 114, and Fillmore 8.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Tell of the treaty with Japan. What is a filibustering expedition? Who was General Lopez? What was the Ostend Manifesto? Tell of the publication of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" and "The Impending Crisis." What was the Kansas-Nebraska Act? What is "Squatter Sovereignty"? Tell of the struggle in Kansas. How many constitutions were made for Kansas? Which one was accepted? What gave rise to the Republican Party? Whom did they nominate for President?

Tell something of Commodore M. C. Perry, Harriet Beecher Stowe, Hinton R. Helper, Stephen A. Douglas, Eli Thayer, J. C. Frémont; 1854.

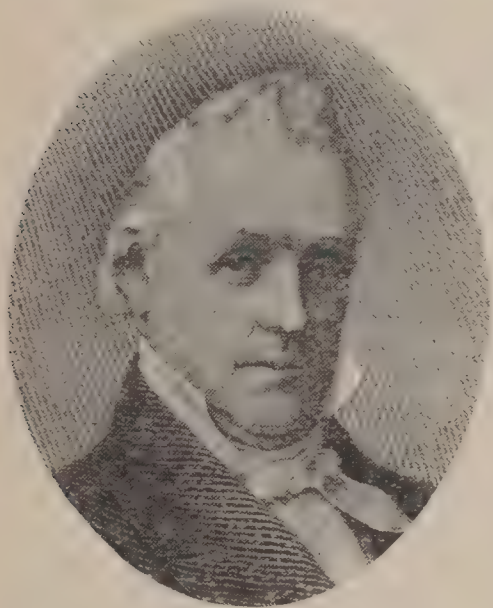
Study the maps.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE APPROACHING CRISIS.

DRED SCOTT DECISION, PERSONAL-LIBERTY LAWS, AND
ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES BUCHANAN, 1857-1861.

The Dred Scott Decision, 1857. Two days after the inauguration of Buchanan, the Supreme Court of the United States announced the celebrated Scott decision. Dred Scott, a negro slave in Missouri, was taken by his master into the free state of Illinois, 1834, and two years later to the free territory, now the state of Minnesota. Scott married, and with his family was later brought back to Missouri by his owner and sold to another master. Here he brought suit for the freedom of himself and family on the ground that his removal from a slave state to a free state or territory made him free.



JAMES BUCHANAN.

The case became a noted one, able lawyers representing both sides. Anti-slavery people favored Scott's cause, and pro-slavery people opposed it. The District Court of St. Louis declared in favor of Scott, and his owner appealed the case to the State Supreme Court, which, in 1852, reversed the lower court. Scott in turn appealed to the United States Circuit Court and then to the United States Supreme Court, which in 1857 decided in substance :

1. That Dred Scott was not a citizen, and therefore could not sue or be sued in the courts of the United States.

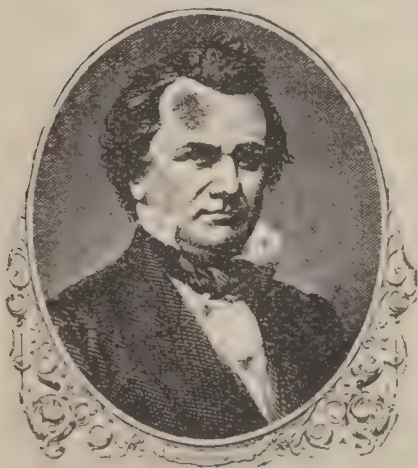
2. That a slave was chattel property and could be taken into

any state or territory by his master, the same as a horse or any movable property.

3. That the Missouri Compromise, which excluded slavery from the Louisiana territory north of $36^{\circ} 30'$, was unconstitutional; therefore, null and void.

This decision filled the southern people with joy but incensed and enraged those in the North. It virtually meant that all anti-slavery laws were null and void and that slavery could exist anywhere in the United States. While it was a temporary victory for the South, it in the end became an advantage to the North, for it increased and united anti-slavery sentiment. More personal-liberty laws were passed, travel by the "underground railroad" was facilitated, and in other ways the people became more aggressive in opposing slavery. Questions concerning the extension of slavery were taken into the contest for the choice of a United States senator in Illinois in 1858.

Lincoln-Douglas Debates.* Stephen A. Douglas was the Democratic candidate for reëlection, and Abraham Lincoln became the Republican candidate against him. In accepting the nomination at Springfield Lincoln said: "A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe that this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free; I do not expect the Union to be dissolved; I do not expect the house



STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS.

to fall; but I do expect it will cease to be divided." Since the members of the state legislatures choose the United States senators, Lincoln and Douglas each tried to have a majority from his party elected. They began making speeches at different places. Lincoln then challenged Douglas to a series of joint debates (between August 21 and September 15), and he accepted. Douglas, short and squarely built, was a

rapid, eloquent and magnetic speaker, and the leader of his

* There were seven joint debates: At Ottawa, Freeport, Jonesboro, Charleston, Galesburg, Quincy, and Alton. Fifty-four legislators voted for Douglas and forty-six for Lincoln, but 4,000 more votes were cast at the polls for Lincoln men than for Douglas men.

party in the United States Senate. Lincoln, tall, slender and awkward, spoke slowly but logically and effectively. He had gained some prominence in his state, but was scarcely known in national affairs. In the debates which followed, Lincoln opposed the extension of slavery, while Douglas spoke in favor of "squatter sovereignty." Douglas was elected senator; but Lincoln proved his superior in debate, and showed himself a man of such keen foresight and great ability that the Republicans made him their next presidential candidate; while Douglas in answering a series of leading questions propounded by Lincoln, gave expression to opinions on the slavery question which, from a southern standpoint, made him an impossible candidate for President.

John Brown's Raid, 1859. A year after the Lincoln-Douglas debates the nation was startled by the news that John Brown at the head of a band of men had made a raid in Virginia with the avowed purpose of striking a blow which would lead to the freedom of the slaves. Brown was one of the most active and fearless characters in the Kansas struggle for freedom. After the adoption of the Wyandotte constitution for the formation of a free state, he set out to strike a greater blow for freedom. Renting a farmhouse near Harper's Ferry, Virginia, 1859, he began secretly to collect arms, ammunition and men, expecting to seize the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry, arm the slaves, and start a slave revolt which would result in giving freedom to the black race.

With nineteen followers, Sunday night, October 16, 1859, he seized the national arsenal at Harper's Ferry, arrested a number of slave-owners, confined them in the guard-house, and declared their slaves free. News of the capture of the arsenal startled the country. The South was thrown into a frenzy of excitement and claimed that the anti-slave leaders in the North had planned the raid, but the facts show that no one but Brown was directly responsible. Many in the North said, however, that it was a natural outgrowth of the squatter sovereignty policy and the Dred Scott decision. State militia and United States marines were hurried to the scene to suppress the

revolt. An assault was made on the arsenal, and the doors were battered down. Ten of the nineteen raiders, including two of Brown's sons, were killed, seven were taken prisoners, and two escaped.* Brown and his six followers were tried by the Virginia courts, convicted of treason† against the state, and on December 2nd were hanged.

The Panic of 1857. While the people were wrought up and disturbed on the slavery question, a financial panic fell upon the nation in 1857. Banks were forced to close their doors. Merchants and manufacturers failed by thousands, men were thrown out of employment, and families suffered for the necessities of life.

The great amount of gold from California, put into circulation in the early fifties, had stimulated men to overdo all kinds of business. Railroads were built beyond the needs of the country, and merchants were overstocked with goods. The supply was greater than the demand. Many industries had to retrench or suspend business, and the result was hard times and a financial panic. These financial troubles seem to come at intervals of about fifteen or twenty years, perhaps because each new generation has to learn the lesson of over-speculation for itself.

Presidential Election, 1860. Wider and wider grew the breach between the North and South. The struggle in Kansas, the Dred Scott decision, and John Brown's raid, each had a great effect on the minds of the people, and led to many changes in the election of 1860. Four parties nominated candidates for the presidency: the Republican, the Northern Democratic, the Southern Democratic, and the Constitutional Union. The northern and southern Democrats could not agree on the slavery question or on a candidate, so they split, and each branch made its own platform and nominated its own candidate.

The southern wing of the Democratic party nominated John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, approved the Dred Scott de-

* While Brown's whole force numbered twenty-one, only nineteen helped seize the arsenal.

† Can the crime of treason be committed against a state?

cision, favored the extension of slavery, and declared for the annexation of Cuba.

The northern Democrats nominated Stephen A. Douglas, favored the fugitive slave law, the annexation of Cuba, and squatter sovereignty as expressed in the Kansas-Nebraska Bill.

A new party, called the Constitutional Union party, nominated John Bell, and avoided the slavery question, which was the great issue before the people, by declaring for "the Constitution, the Union of the states, and the enforcement of the laws."

The Republicans opposed the extension of slavery, favored the immediate admission of Kansas as a free state, and declared that the "Federal Constitution and the rights of the states must and shall be preserved." They nominated Abraham Lincoln of Illinois for President and Hannibal Hamlin of Maine for Vice-President. The Republicans were therefore positively opposed to the further extension of slavery; the southern Democrats were just as firmly in favor of extending slavery everywhere; the northern Democrats wished to leave the settlement of the slavery question entirely to each individual territory; while the Constitutional Union party hoped to catch the popular vote by steering clear of the subject which had made so much trouble.

Bell carried Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia. Douglas carried only Missouri and three votes in New Jersey. Breckinridge carried all other states south of the Ohio river and the Mason and Dixon line, and Lincoln carried California and all north of this line excepting three New Jersey votes, receiving 180 out of 303 of the electoral votes.

Fears of the South. The balance between the free and slave states was now clearly turned in favor of the former. With the admission of Kansas there would be nineteen free and only fifteen slave states. This gave to the North eight more Senators and sixty more Representatives in Congress than to the South, besides a large territory from which slavery would be excluded by the policy of the Republican party. Republicans had no intention of abolishing slavery where it already existed;

but the southern leaders believed that the time was not far distant when an effort would be made to free the slaves. They bitterly complained of the Personal Liberty Laws, the Underground Railroad, and the John Brown Raid. They said that the policy of the Republican party would rob the South of the fruits of the Dred Scott decision. Many times before, the southern leaders had threatened to leave the Union, but now, after the election of Lincoln, they began to make definite plans for a separate government.

Attempts at Compromise. Friends of the Union again came forward with compromises to patch up the differences between the North and the South. Many plans were proposed, but the one receiving most serious consideration was that of Senator John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, to amend the Constitution in the following particulars: 1. That all territory north of 36° 30' should be free and all south of it should be slave. 2. That Congress should have no power to interfere with slavery in any state or territory south of that line. 3. That new states should be free or slave as the people within them should decide. And that the United States should pay owners for fugitive slaves.

PEACE CONFERENCE. Virginia came forward in an effort to save the Union. The legislature called a peace conference at Washington (February, 1861), asking each state to send delegates to effect a compromise. Not one of the six cotton states which had already seceded sent delegates. A compromise similar to the Crittenden Compromise was adopted by the convention but rejected by Congress.

Secession. On December 20, 1860, a convention of delegates called by the legislature of South Carolina passed an ordinance of secession. By February 1, 1861, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, Louisiana and Texas had followed her example. The senators and representatives of these states resigned from Congress and hastened south to aid the seceded states in forming a new government.

On March 4, 1861, delegates from all the seceded states ex-

cept Texas met at Montgomery, Alabama, formed a constitution, and established a government called the Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, was elected provisional President, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, Vice-President. The constitution authorized slavery and allowed greater rights to the states than did the Federal Constitution. After Virginia seceded, the Confederate capital was moved from Montgomery to Richmond, only one hundred and twenty-five miles from Washington.



JEFFERSON DAVIS.

Buchanan's Policy. President Buchanan did practically nothing to stop secession. In his message to Congress he said that no state had a constitutional right to secede, but that there was no law by which he could compel a state to remain in the Union. From beginning to end there was nothing in his message to give hope to the North, and no note of warning to cause the South to falter or hesitate. Compromise and appeal to reason had failed. The only chance left to save the Union was to make use of the army and navy as Jackson had done in the early days when South Carolina threatened to secede. But Buchanan doubted, faltered, and allowed the secessionists to go on with their plans of organizing a Confederate government and of seizing the property and forts of the United States in the South. Buchanan's cabinet went to pieces. Three withdrew to join the Confederacy, and Cass resigned because Buchanan did not act with decision in protecting the government. Union men were appointed to fill the vacancies, but nothing effective was done to check the movements of secession.

Government Property Seized. The "Star of the West." Southern officers resigned from the army and navy to cast their fortunes with the seceded states. The Confederates seized forts, arsenals, custom-houses and postoffices and other national



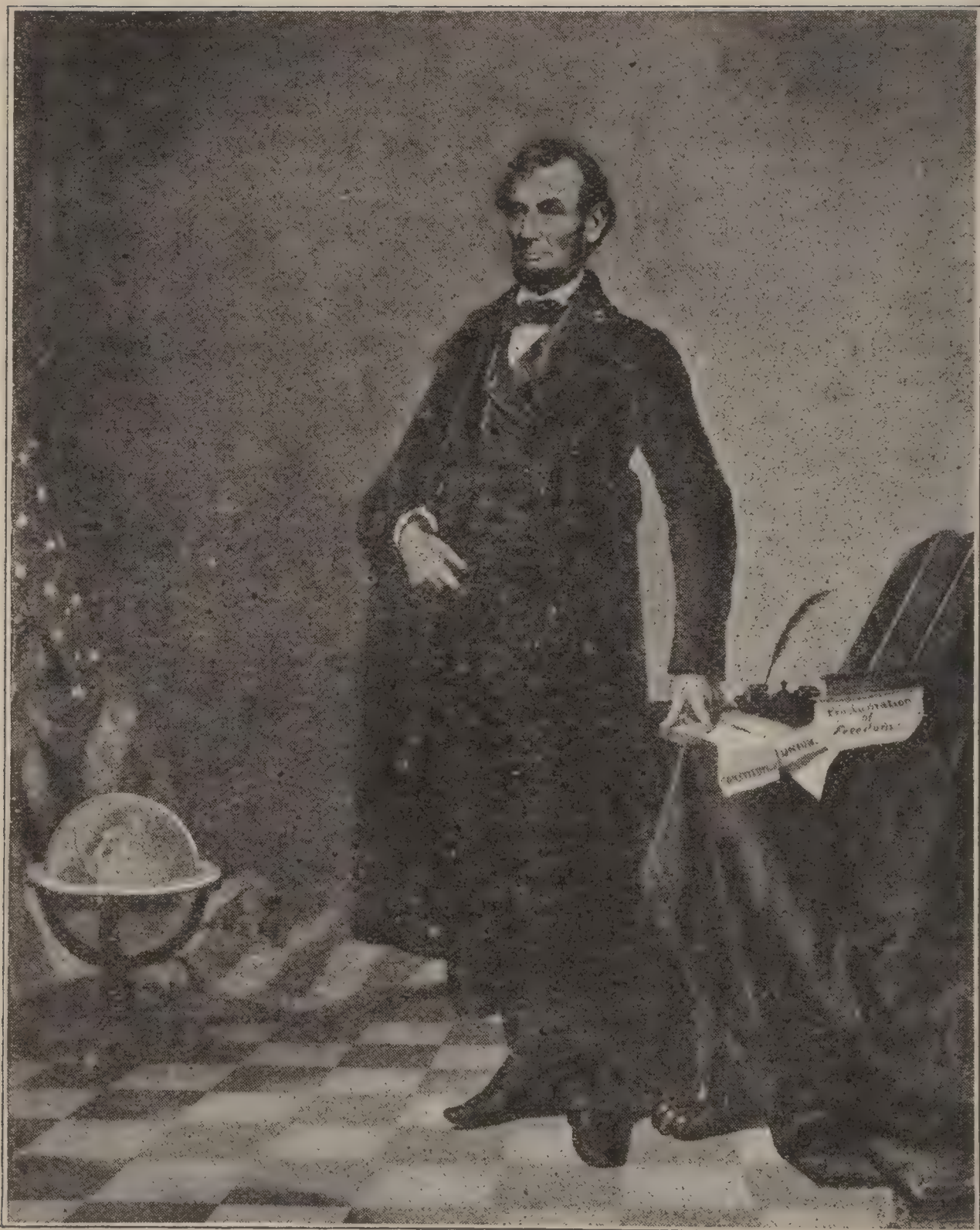
property in the South. Fort Sumter at the entrance to Charleston Harbor, Fortress Monroe on Chesapeake Bay, Fort Pickens at Pensacola, and the defenses at Key West, yet remained in the national possession. Early in January Buchanan sent supplies to Major Anderson at Fort Sumter, in a merchant steamer, the *Star of the West*, but the Confederate batteries at Charleston fired upon the steamer and drove her away.

Thus it was that Buchanan's administration drew to a close amidst gloom bordering upon despair, with terrible rumblings of a great civil war already heard. A conflict destined to darken the land and drench it with fraternal blood was at hand.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Tell of the Dred Scott Decision. Who was Dred Scott? What was the effect of this decision? Tell of the Lincoln-Douglas debates. What questions were debated? What was the result of the election? Tell of John Brown's Raid. What became of Brown? What caused the Panic of 1857? What four candidates were nominated for President? What was Lincoln's platform? Douglas's? Breckinridge's? Bell's? What is secession? What states seceded? Who was elected President of the Confederacy? What was Buchanan's policy? What government property was seized by the South?

Give an outline of the chapter. Write the names of six persons named in this chapter, and tell something of each. What dates and facts should be memorized?



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

"With malice toward none, with charity for all."

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE CIVIL WAR, 1861-1865.

ADMINISTRATION OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN, 1861-1865.

Inauguration. Amid such scenes Abraham Lincoln became President, March 4, 1861. On the way from his home at Springfield, Illinois, to Washington, he made many speeches, and everywhere in the North was received with demonstrations of loyalty, but in the state of Maryland the sympathies of the people were divided. Rumors of a plan to assassinate Lincoln as he passed through Baltimore, where the spirit of secession ran high, led him, upon the advice of friends, to go from Philadelphia to Washington by night on a special train.

Lincoln's Policy. A wise, strong and resolute but kindly man was now at the helm to direct the nation. He announced his policy clearly, so that friend and foe alike knew what to expect. His inaugural address is a literary masterpiece, throbbing with a love of humanity and country. "I have no purpose," he said, among other things, "directly or indirectly, to interfere with the institution of slavery where it already exists."

"No state, upon its own motion, can lawfully get out of the Union; resolves and ordinances to that effect are legally void."

"The power confided in me will be used to hold, occupy and possess the property and places belonging to the government, and to collect the duties and imposts."

"In your hands, my dissatisfied fellow-countrymen, and not in mine, is the momentous issue of civil war. The government will not assail you. You can have no conflict without being yourselves the aggressors. You have no oath registered in heaven to destroy the government, while I have the solemn one to preserve, protect and defend it. I am loth to close. We are not enemies, but friends. We must not be enemies. Though



SALMON P. CHASE.
EDWIN M. STANTON.

PRESIDENT LINCOLN.

GIDEON WELLES. CALEB SMITH.
WILLIAM H. SEWARD.

MONTGOMERY BLAIR.
EDWARD BATES.

passion may have strained, it must not break, our bonds of affection."

Douglas and his thousands of followers heartily supported Lincoln's expressed purpose to save the Union.

The new cabinet was selected with a view to unite sentiment in the North. Of the seven advisers, four were of Democratic tendency, two were from the slave states, and at least two were prominent rivals of Lincoln for the presidency.

THE OPENING EVENTS OF THE WAR.

The Fall of Fort Sumter, April 14, 1861. Major Robert Anderson, in command of less than a hundred men, was stationed at Fort Sumter, in the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina. His stock of provisions and ammunition was low. Upon assuming the presidency, Lincoln decided to send men and supplies to Anderson. As soon as Davis heard of this, he ordered General P. G. T. Beauregard, who was in command of the Confederate forces at Charleston, to demand the surrender of Fort Sumter.* Upon the refusal of Anderson to surrender, the Confederates turned their batteries upon the fort and fired the first shot of the Civil War. For thirty-four hours they kept up a continuous bombardment. Anderson returned the fire, but the odds were too great. After food and ammunition were nearly exhausted, the barracks on fire, and the fort partly demolished, Anderson capitulated, April 14, 1861, marched out with honors of war, and was permitted to embark with his troops for New York. Not a man was killed on either side, but the affair was great in its consequences. Both sides prepared for war, and events followed each other in rapid succession.

On April 17th, President Davis issued a proclamation, offering letters of marque and reprisal (Const., clause 11, p. 206) to all who would prey upon the commerce of the United States. Ex-

* Beauregard had been an officer in the regular army. He resigned, joined the Confederacy, and had an army of about 6,000 men at Charleston. The flag floating over Fort Sumter was shot to tatters. Anderson carried it with him, and four years later to a day, after the surrender of the fort, he again hoisted the same flag over the same fort, when it was recaptured.

cepting the vessels secretly furnished by England, the efforts of the South to fit out commerce-destroyers were of but little avail.

Lincoln's Call for Troops. President Lincoln called for 75,000 men, April 15th, and four days later declared the southern ports in a state of blockade.* A mighty wave of patriotism swept over the North. People forgot party animosities, and joined hands to preserve the Union. From field and farm, shop and store, mill and factory, from every walk of life came fathers and sons to offer their services, and, if need be, their lives for the nation. Fife and drum and floating flag helped to stir the war spirit. Troops hastened to the defense of Washington, which was in danger of being captured. Within thirty-six hours after the President's call, the first troops reached the Capital City. On April 19, 1861, the same day of the same month already famous for the battles of Lexington and Concord, the first Union soldiers lost their lives. As the Sixth Massachusetts regiment was passing through Baltimore it was attacked by a mob, and forced to fight its way through. In the conflict some rioters and a few soldiers were killed. Troops continued to pour into Washington until, in a short time, 50,000 soldiers, ready for service, were encamped about the city. No less remarkable was the outpouring of men in the South in support of their cause.

Relative Strength of North and South. The North had an advantage over the South in several ways. Its population in 1860 was 19,000,000, while that of the South was only 8,000,000 white and 4,000,000 slave. In industry, wealth and popular education the North greatly excelled the South. With its fertile farms and numerous mills, foundries and factories, it could furnish all kinds of military equipment, from a bullet to a cannon. The North was in every way self-sustaining, and independent of foreign help. It also had control of the navy and owned the dock-yards for building and repairing ships, while the South had neither navy nor dock-yards.

* The President's call for soldiers was apportioned among all states, free and slave, North and South, East and West, according to the population, but the southern states paid no attention to the call.

The South had a decided advantage in fighting on her own soil, on the defensive, and frequently behind breastworks. While Floyd was Secretary of War in Buchanan's administration he moved much of the ammunition and arms to southern arsenals, where they were seized by the Confederates at the outbreak of the war. The South was better prepared at the beginning, but did not have the resources for a long-continued struggle. The contest between the two sections at times seemed evenly balanced, but, barring the possible interference of France and England, the result was never in great doubt.

Both the belligerent parties were equally brave, and fought for what they believed to be right. Time and the logic of events have proved that the views of the North were right and that its triumph resulted finally in good, not alone to the nation as a whole, but even to the South itself, after it had recovered from the immediate effects of war.

Other States Secede. Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee and North Carolina seceded early in 1861, and joined the Confederacy, which thus consisted of eleven states.

Forty-five counties in the western part of Virginia refused to join the Confederacy.* The people in this mountainous district, in June, 1861, held a convention which made plans to form a new state. A free-state constitution was framed and state officers were elected. This was recognized by the government at Washington as the legal government representing Virginia, in order to comply with the provision in the Constitution which says that no new state may be formed out of another without the consent of the legislature of the state. In 1863 the new state was admitted to the Union under the name of West Virginia.

War in the Border States. Lying next to the free states was a strip of slave territory in which sentiment was nearly equally divided between Union and Secession. It included

* West Virginia is an illustration of the attitude of a section of a state toward slavery as affected by climate and soil. This part of the state was not adapted to the use of slave labor. There were no great plantations, consequently few slaves. The eastern part of Tennessee almost seceded from Tennessee when that state joined the Confederacy. It is estimated that 100,000 troops enlisted in the northern armies from the mountain region south of Pennsylvania.

the states of Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri. The National Government recognized the importance of saving these states to the Union at the outset of the war.

WEST VIRGINIA. The Confederate state of Virginia sent an armed force to the mountain district to prevent the organization of a new state. Lincoln sent an army under the command of George B. McClellan to support the Federal cause. In a brief and aggressive campaign during the summer of 1861, McClellan defeated the Confederates at Philippi, Rich Mountain and Carrick's Ford, freeing the state from open resistance to the Union.

MISSOURI. It was a harder task to rid Missouri of Confederate forces. Governor Claiborne F. Jackson was a strong secessionist, and used every effort to induce the state to secede. Delegates were elected to a state convention which was to decide the question of secession. Largely through the tact and skill of Francis P. Blair, a prominent citizen of St. Louis, a majority of the delegates elected, to the chagrin of Jackson, were Unionists.

The convention declared the state offices vacant, and selected loyal men who were to serve until others should be elected. Both sides organized armies and many severe engagements resulted. Nathaniel Lyon in command of a Union army captured Jefferson City (1861), and displaced the state officers who favored secession.

The severest battle of the year, except Bull Run, was fought August 10th, at Wilson's Creek, where General Lyon with less than half the opposing forces met a Confederate army of 12,000 under Generals Price and McCulloch. Lyon was killed. His army was forced to retreat, but later, on receiving reinforcements, it resumed the offensive and drove the Confederates into Arkansas.

OTHER BORDER STATES. In the slave state of Delaware there was but little resistance to national authority. A majority of the people in Kentucky and Maryland were in favor of the Union, but there were many within their borders who vigorously worked for secession. During the course of the war

many persons from Kentucky and Maryland fought in the northern armies, while others fought with the South. These states, however, were saved to the Union, and formed neutral ground upon which were fought some of the great battles of the war.

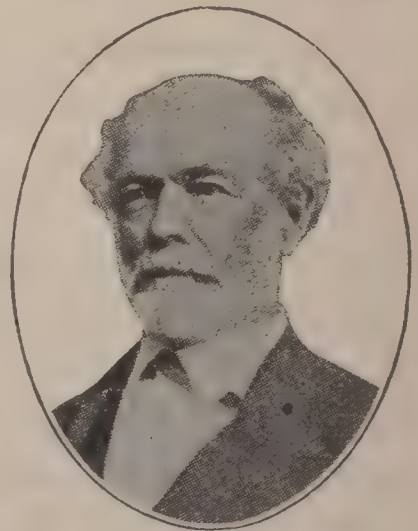
Position of the Armies. General Beauregard with an army of 20,000 Confederates was encamped at Manassas, near Bull Run, about thirty-five miles southwest of Washington. General Joseph E. Johnston, general-in-chief of the Confederates, had another force of 10,000 near Winchester, Virginia. Winfield Scott, general-in-chief of the Union army, sent General Robert Patterson to oppose Johnston and prevent him from sending aid to the Confederates at Bull Run, whom General Irwin McDowell was to attack.

Battle of Bull Run, July 21, 1861. The North had become impatient for results. "On to Richmond!" "On to Richmond!" was the cry of the people. General Winfield Scott desired more time to drill and discipline the troops, but yielding to the popular cry, he sent McDowell forward with 30,000 men to attack the Confederates, who were strongly posted behind Bull Run. On Sunday, July 21, 1861, the Union Army made a spirited attack. The Confederates were forced back, and victory seemed certain for the Union troops. Johnston, however, having outgeneraled Patterson, slipped away from him and unexpectedly arrived with fresh troops to aid Beauregard. The tide of battle was turned from promised victory into bitter defeat, and the Federal troops fled in panic to Washington.

The defeat of Bull Run taught a valuable lesson to the North. The people now saw that the rebellion could not be ended by a



GEN. WINFIELD SCOTT.



GEN. JOSEPH E. JOHNSTON.

handful of undisciplined soldiers. The government prepared for war on a large scale. The day after the battle Congress voted to enlist an army of 500,000 men and to provide for \$500,000,000 to carry on the war. The people of the South, jubilant over their victory, called for more troops with which, as they fondly expected, to bring the war speedily to a close.

The Army of the Potomac Organized. The troops around Washington were formed into the Army of the Potomac,



GEN. GEORGE B. McCLELLAN.

and General George B. McClellan was called from his victorious campaigns in West Virginia and placed at its head. His motto became, "Organize and drill." Regiment after regiment flocked into Washington, and McClellan set to work to convert the raw recruits into disciplined soldiers before attempting to give battle. By December, 1861, 185,000 soldiers were encamped around Washington, but no forward movements were attempted until the spring of 1862.

Foreign Affairs. Soon after the beginning of the war, England, France and Spain recognized the Confederacy as a belligerent power, and several times were on the point of interfering in behalf of the South. It was with difficulty that this was prevented. England was one of the first nations to free her slaves, and was a leading spirit in the movement for the freedom of all slaves. To this extent she was in sympathy with the North. On the other hand, her commercial and industrial interests (see Blockade, p. 361) were so dependent on the South that there was a strong temptation to recognize the independence of the Confederacy. Fortunately, the two sections were left alone to settle the momentous question.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What was the condition of the nation when Lincoln became President? What was Lincoln's policy? What did he say about his oath? Tell of the fall of Fort Sumter. Tell of Lincoln's call for troops. Contrast the relative strength of the North and South. What states were included in the Confederacy? How did West Virginia become a state? What were the Border States? How was Missouri prevented from seceding? Kentucky? Tell of the Battle of Bull Run. What was the Army of the Potomac? Who was the first commander? What position did England, France, Russia and Spain assume on the war?

CHAPTER XXIX.

CAMPAIGNS OF THE CIVIL WAR.

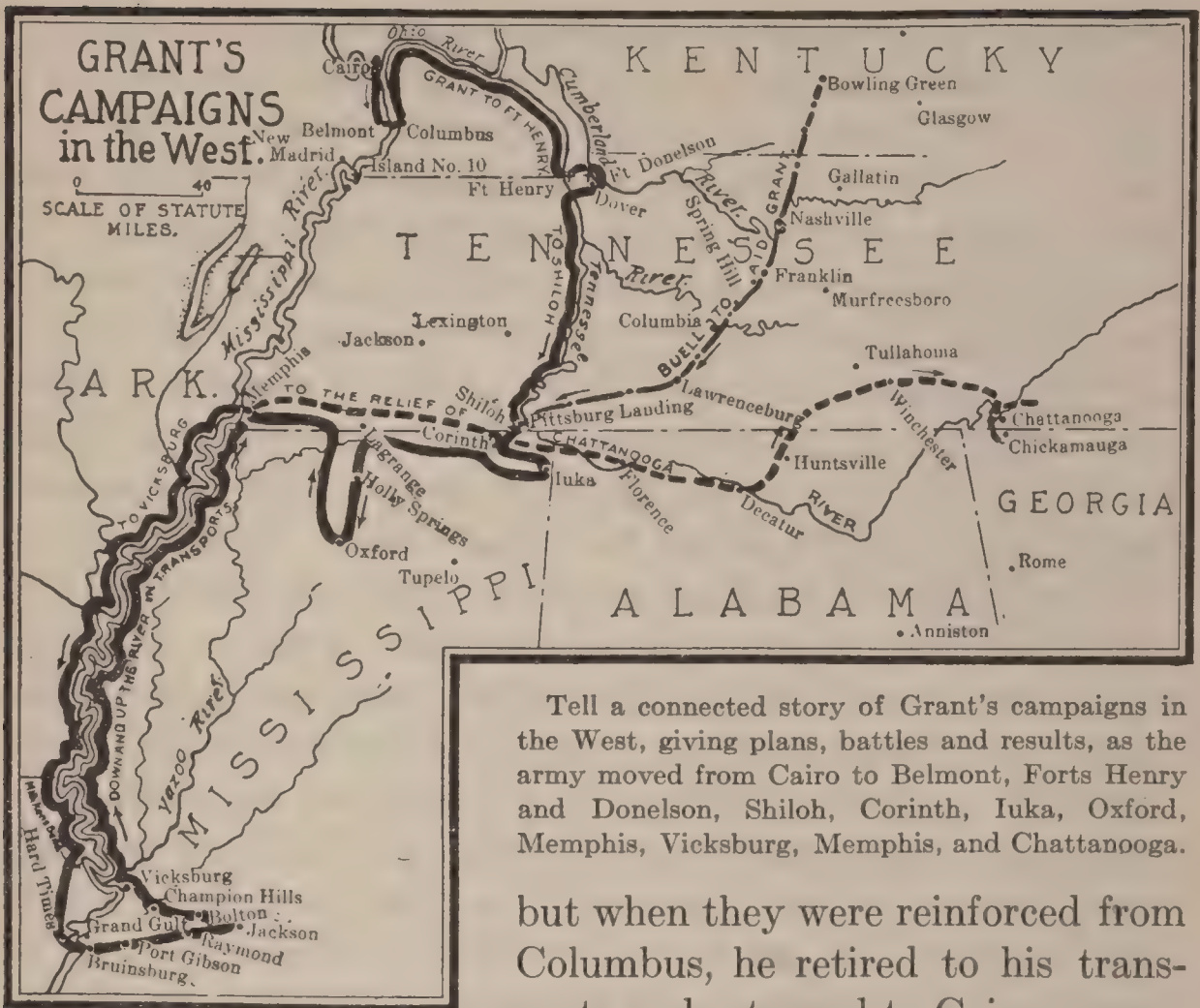
GENERAL PLANS.

It was not until the beginning of the year 1862 that the Federal government was prepared to prosecute the war on an extensive scale. The plans in general were to open the Mississippi river, to defeat and subdue the Confederate armies, and to capture Richmond, the capital of the Confederacy. In accomplishing these ends, the work of the Union armies may be considered under the following heads:

1. Grant's campaigns in the West, and the opening of the Mississippi river. (1862-1863.)
2. Buell and Rosecrans opposing Bragg in Kentucky and Tennessee. (1862-1863.)
3. Sherman's March to the Sea. (1864-1865.)
4. Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac in its efforts to defeat General Lee and capture Richmond. (1862-1865.)
5. The operations of the navy along the coast and in conjunction with the armies.

GRANT IN THE WEST AND THE OPENING OF THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

Confederate Line of Defense. The Confederates held a line of defense from Mill Springs through Bowling Green, Forts Henry and Donelson to Columbus on the Mississippi. Albert Sidney Johnston, in chief command of the Confederates in the West, was at Bowling Green, confronted by General Buell. General Henry Halleck, chief in command of the Federal forces in the West, was at St. Louis, and General U. S. Grant was at Cairo, Illinois, at the confluence of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. In November, 1861, Grant led an expedition down the river to Belmont, and succeeded in defeating the Confederates,



Tell a connected story of Grant's campaigns in the West, giving plans, battles and results, as the army moved from Cairo to Belmont, Forts Henry and Donelson, Shiloh, Corinth, Iuka, Oxford, Memphis, Vicksburg, Memphis, and Chattanooga.

but when they were reinforced from Columbus, he retired to his transports and returned to Cairo.

CAPTURE OF FORTS HENRY AND DONELSON, FEBRUARY, 1862. General Grant was the first to begin an active campaign in the year 1862. While McClellan was quietly organizing and drilling his army around Washington, Grant, with the aid of Commodore Foote, was battering down the Confederate line of defense in the West. Embarking the army at Cairo, the fleet ascended the Ohio and Tennessee rivers to a point near Fort Henry. After a brief bombardment by the gunboats, the fort surrendered, February 6, 1862. Most of the Confederate troops had been removed from Fort Henry to strengthen Fort Donelson, which lay twelve miles to the east, on the Cumberland river. Grant marched



GEN. ULYSSES S. GRANT.

his troops to Fort Donelson, while Commodore Foote went by the Tennessee, Ohio and Cumberland rivers to the same place. Again the gunboats led the attack, but they were forced to retire. In a wintry rain, followed by snow and intense cold, Grant's army closed in on the fort. After three days of desperate fighting General Buckner asked for terms of surrender.* Grant promptly answered: "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." Sunday, February 16, 1862, 15,000 prisoners, up to this time the largest number that ever surrendered in an American battle, laid down their arms.

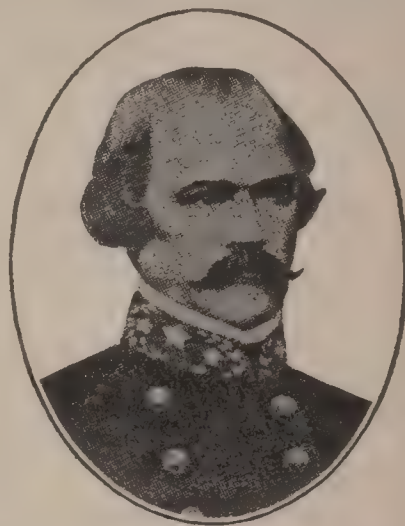
THE EFFECT. This great victory opened the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, made the Confederates abandon their line of defense in the West, and revived the drooping spirits of the North. General Johnston moved south from Bowling Green, Kentucky, to Corinth, Mississippi. Columbus was abandoned (March 4). Soon after, Pope, another of Halleck's generals, in conjunction with Commodore Foote captured New Madrid and Island No. 10, on the Mississippi.† General George H. Thomas had defeated the Confederates at Mill Springs in January, so the entire Confederate line of defense was pushed southward. The Confederates established a new line, extending from Chattanooga on the east through Corinth to Memphis on the west.

Battle of Shiloh, April 6, 1862. After the capture of Fort Donelson, Grant took his troops in transports up the Tennessee to Pittsburg Landing, expecting to break through the Confederate line of defense at Corinth. Buell had instructions to join him before an attack should be made. While Grant was waiting for Buell, he was suddenly attacked by Johnston's army, April 6, 1862, and driven back to the slope along the

* General John B. Floyd, Secretary of War in Buchanan's administration, had been in command at Fort Donelson. He was in disfavor at Washington for moving military stores into the South. Fearing to fall into Union hands, he and General Pillow escaped up the river with several thousand troops, and turned their command over to General Buckner. For this act of cowardice, Floyd was reprimanded by Jefferson Davis and dismissed from the service.

† The islands in the Mississippi are numbered by the government on its charts from the mouth of the Ohio down the stream; hence the name Island No. 10.

river. But during the night Buell's army arrived, 20,000 strong. The battle was renewed the next day, and after some desperate fighting near the old Shiloh church, the Confederates were defeated and driven from the field. Johnston was killed, and Beauregard, who succeeded him, withdrew to Corinth.



GEN. ALBERT SIDNEY JOHNSTON.

On the same day that Shiloh was fought, the Federal gunboats defeated the Confederate fleet at Memphis and took possession of the city. General Halleck now arrived and took personal command of the Union army, and prepared to attack Corinth; but when he appeared before the city, the enemy quietly withdrew to Tupelo. Before any other movement took place, Halleck received a telegram, July 11, 1862, appointing him general-in-chief with headquarters at Washington, to succeed McClellan, who had been conducting an unsatisfactory campaign around Richmond. Grant succeeded Halleck in the West.

CAMPAIGNS OF BUELL AND BRAGG IN KENTUCKY AND TENNESSEE.

Movement on Chattanooga, and Invasion of Kentucky.

General Beauregard resigned on account of ill-health, and General Braxton Bragg, who succeeded him in command, divided his army so as to cover Chattanooga and Vicksburg, both places of great strategic value to the Confederates. Buell's army was again detached from Grant's command to look after the former, while Grant moved against the latter. The rebuilding of the railroads, which had been partially destroyed, delayed Buell so that Bragg reached Chattanooga first. Hoping to recover lost ground, get supplies and gain recruits, he began an invasion of Kentucky, which drew Buell after him. A lively race ensued for Louisville. By forced marches Buell reached the city first. General Kirby Smith, in command of 12,000



Trace the movements of the Union and Confederate armies in Kentucky and Tennessee, giving plans, battles, and results.

Confederate cavalry, advanced from Knoxville through Cumberland Gap, and Richmond, Kentucky, (where he defeated General Nelson in charge of the Federal cavalry,) to Frankfort. Here he joined Bragg, and an attempt was made to set up a Confederate government, but it was foiled by the approach of Federal troops.

Battle of Perryville, and Confederate Retreat. General Buell, after receiving reinforcements at Louisville, went in pursuit of Bragg, and overtook him at Perryville, October 8, 1862. A severe battle was fought, with heavy loss to both armies. General Bragg retired from the field, and, retreating slowly through Cumberland Gap, got his immense wagon-train back to Chattanooga in safety.

Both Lincoln and Davis were dissatisfied with the conduct of

their generals. Davis ordered General Bragg to move north. Lincoln was displeased with Buell because he had permitted the Confederate army to invade the state of Kentucky and carry away an immense amount of stock and supplies, while he had engaged it in but one battle. His command was therefore given to General W. S. Rosecrans.

Battle of Murfreesboro, December 31 and January 2.

In accordance with instructions, Bragg advanced northward as far as Murfreesboro, where he was attacked by Rosecrans's army. After two days of desperate fighting (December 31, 1862, and January 2, 1863), in which each side lost more than 10,000 men, killed, wounded and captured, Bragg again retreated toward Chattanooga. Rosecrans remained at Murfreesboro until June, and then, by skillful movements, forced Bragg to retreat into northwestern Georgia, while he took possession of Chattanooga.

Capture of New Orleans, April 25, 1862. While Grant, Buell and Rosecrans were driving the Confederate lines southward, another Union force entered the mouth of the Mississippi to aid in opening the river. One of the chief strongholds was New Orleans, at that time the largest city in the Confederacy, with important workshops and facilities for supplying the southern armies with weapons and other military supplies. It was the shipping-point for grain, stock and produce from the southwest. The entrance to the city was guarded by two strong forts, St. Philip and Jackson, on the opposite banks of the Mississippi, about seventy-four miles below the city. Two heavy iron chains fastened on anchored rafts were stretched across the river between the forts, and a fleet of Confederate gunboats, two of them ironclads, stood guard above. The Confederates believed that approach to New Orleans by the Mississippi, thus fortified, was impossible.

David Farragut, aided by a land force under General B. F. Butler, was in command of the fleet sent to open the river and capture New Orleans. For five days and nights he bombarded the forts with but little effect. He then tried the daring plan of running through the obstructions and past the

forts. April 24, 1862, he cut the chains, steamed up the river with seventeen vessels, ran the gauntlet of the forts in



COMMODORE DAVID FARRAGUT.

the face of a terrific fire amidst burning oil and floating fire-rafts, and encountered and destroyed the entire Confederate fleet. A small army under General Lovell fled from New Orleans as Commodore Farragut entered the city, April 25. Butler followed with his army in transports, and, after capturing Forts St. Philip and Jackson, he was placed in military command of the city.

The victory was a brilliant one, and the fall of New Orleans a heavy blow to the Confederacy; for it meant the loss of the entire southwest, which had largely supplied the armies with grain and cattle.

Farragut went up the river and captured Baton Rouge and Natchez, and attempted, but failed, to capture Vicksburg. Its location on high bluffs made it impregnable without the aid of a land force.

Battles of Iuka and Corinth. After Grant had been greatly weakened by the withdrawal of Buell's forces, the Confederates, Price and Van Dorn, tried to destroy his army by falling upon Rosecrans's* division at Iuka, September 19, 1862, where they suffered defeat. Again they attacked him at Corinth, but after a bloody contest retreated in disorder.

Rosecrans was then promoted to succeed Buell at Nashville (September, 1863), and Van Dorn was superseded by General Pemberton, who held command at Vicksburg, the only remaining stronghold on the Mississippi.

Capture of Vicksburg, July 4, 1863.—GRANT'S FIRST ATTEMPT. In the fall of 1862, General Grant attempted to capture Vicksburg by sending General W. T. Sherman* down the

* Sherman and Rosecrans each had a command under Grant.

Mississippi in transports with instructions to assault the works at Vicksburg while Grant marched overland, expecting to draw Pemberton's army from behind its fortifications. When Grant was at Oxford, Van Dorn got in his rear and destroyed several million dollars' worth of his supplies at Holly Springs (December 20, 1862), and Sherman's attack on Vicksburg was unsuccessful.

GRANT'S SECOND MOVEMENT. Grant, abandoning the idea of marching to Vicksburg, next went to Memphis, where his troops were put on transports and taken down the Mississippi to Milliken's Bend. He tried to cut a canal in the bend of the river so as to change the course of the stream, take the fleet and troops below the city, and make an attack from that quarter. The canal project failed. One dark night, April 26, 1862, Admiral Porter ran his gunboats with barges in tow past the Vicksburg batteries, with the loss of only one vessel, and Grant marched his troops down to Hard Times, where they were met by the fleet and taken across the river. Pemberton came out to meet the invading army, but was defeated at Port Gibson and Raymond. Joseph E. Johnston, now chief-in-command in the West, arrived with an army to aid Pemberton, but he was defeated at Jackson by Sherman's corps. Grant pressed heavily upon Pemberton, defeating him at Champion Hills and at the Big Black River, after which Pemberton withdrew within his defenses. After assaulting the fortifications with heavy loss, Grant settled down to a siege, with every avenue of escape cut off from the Confederates. For seven weeks, day and night, Grant poured shot and shell into the doomed city. Families took refuge in cellars and caves to escape the dreadful destruction of the bursting bombs. Food gave out; even the mule-meat and corn-meal had become exhausted. Starvation, sickness and exhaustion threatened the destruction of many lives. Further resistance was suicidal; so Pemberton hung out the white flag and surrendered 31,000 men, July 4, 1863.*

The effects of the victory were far-reaching: 1. Port Hudson surrendered five days later, thus completing the opening of the

* In addition to this, the Confederates lost about 15,000 killed, wounded and captured in the series of battles around Vicksburg.

Mississippi river; 2. Thirty-one thousand men were taken out of the Confederate service; 3. Grant's forces were able to go to the relief of the Union army shut up in Chattanooga. Had no relief come to this army, it would have had to surrender, and Bragg's army would have been taken to swell the Confederate forces in other sections of the South.

Battle of Chickamauga, September 19 and 20, 1863.

While Rosecrans was waiting in Chattanooga, General Bragg silently began the work of collecting the largest Confederate army that ever appeared in the West. Troops were brought from Tennessee and Mississippi, and 20,000 veteran soldiers under Longstreet were sent by Lee from Virginia. With an army of 70,000 men Bragg attacked Rosecrans's army of 55,000 at Chickamauga Creek. Here was fought one of the bloodiest battles of the war. The first day was indecisive. The



GEN. GEORGE H. THOMAS.

second day the Union right broke, and fled to Chattanooga. The center gave way, but General George H. Thomas remained steadfast as a rock on the left, and saved the Union army from utter rout. Again and again the Confederates hurled their heavy columns against his ranks, but Thomas held his ground with desperate firmness, seldom equaled in the annals of war. For this splendid service he was ever after called

"The Rock of Chickamauga." At night he retreated to Chattanooga. Here Bragg besieged the Union army, cut off its communications, thus expecting to starve it into surrender.

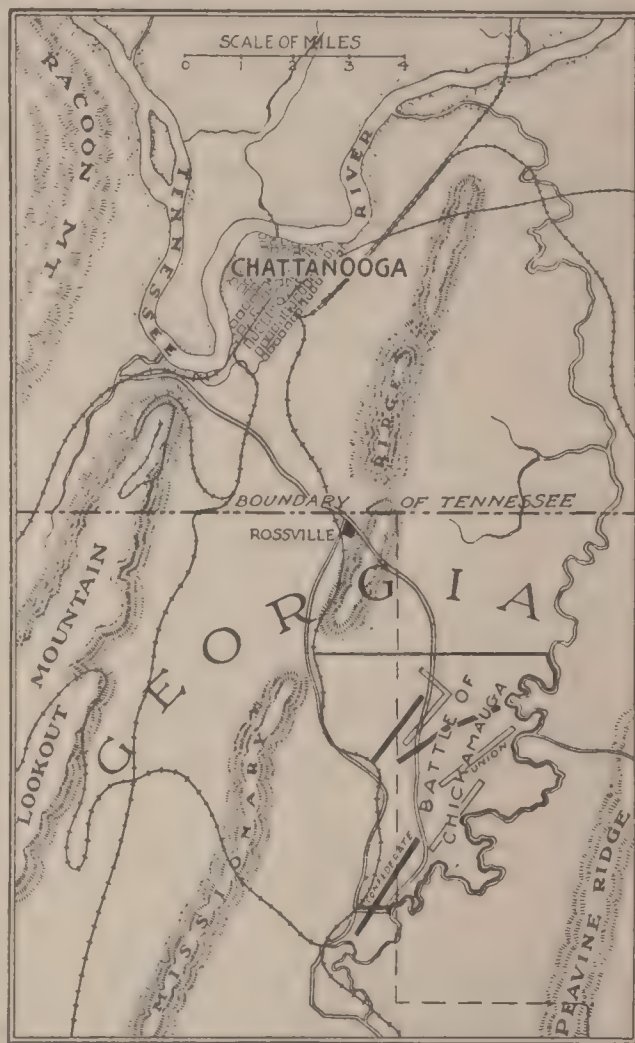
Relief for Chattanooga. General Halleck, becoming alarmed for the safety of Rosecrans's army, sent Hooker from the army of the Potomac with 20,000 men; Sherman was brought with a large force from Vicksburg. Rosecrans was superseded by General George H. Thomas; and General Grant, having been placed in command of all troops west of the

mountains, speedily arranged to drive the enemy from their strongholds on Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge.

Battles of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, November, 1863. The Confederates, now clearly outnumbered, were forced to take the defensive. Hooker's troops charged the works at Lookout Mountain, November 24, carried the rifle-pits, drove the enemy from their intrenchments, and following them up the mountain-slopes over boulders and ledges, planted the Stars and Stripes on the crest of the mountain. The routed Confederates took refuge with their comrades on Missionary Ridge.

On November 25th, the thrilling scenes of the previous day were reenacted by Sherman and Thomas in the assault upon Missionary Ridge. Their troops were directed to take the line of rifle-pits on the side of the ridge and there wait for orders, but the soldiers did not stop. They carried the rifle-pits, and then, spurred on by their enthusiasm, charged up the mountain until the Confederates fled over the crest and down the opposite slope.

Bragg had greatly weakened his army before the battle of Lookout Mountain by sending Longstreet with 20,000 men to capture Burnside at Knoxville. Longstreet laid siege to that city, but after the Union victory at Chattanooga, Sherman was sent to the relief of Burnside. Longstreet then abandoned the siege and rejoined his old commander, Lee, in Virginia.



CAMPAIGNS OF THE CIVIL WAR.

Upon what general plans did the government prosecute the war? Give Grant's campaigns in the west, telling a connected story of what was done. Why did Bragg invade Kentucky? What battle ended his invasion? What great battle was fought in Tennessee? What battle was fought in northern Georgia? What army was shut up in Chattanooga? Who took New Orleans? Tell of the movements against Vicksburg, its capture and the result. Tell of the Battle of Lookout Mountain. Of Missionary Ridge. What was the effect of these campaigns in the West? Name the leading Union and the leading Confederate officers. Which was the most important battle? Why?

CHAPTER XXX.

THE NAVY IN THE CIVIL WAR.

The Navy of 1861. At the outbreak of the rebellion our navy consisted of ninety vessels. Fifty of them were sailing-ships, and forty propelled by steam. They were mostly in foreign ports or laid up in the navy yards, not more than a dozen being at once available for use. The Federal government realized the importance of a good navy, and at once set to work to build one. The vessels in foreign ports were called home, more war-ships were hastily built, and many merchant vessels were purchased and fitted for naval service.

The South began the war without any navy and with but limited means to create one. Had it not been for the aid of England, acting contrary to the duty of a neutral nation, but little damage could have been done by the Confederacy to the commerce of the United States.

Objects of the Navy. The navy had a great task to perform. Its duties were :

1. To blockade the entire Confederate coast from Chesapeake Bay to the Rio Grande, a distance of 3,000 miles.
2. To aid in opening the Mississippi river and its tributaries.
3. To protect the commerce of the United States and destroy the Confederate cruisers and blockade-runners.
4. To capture the forts and seaports scattered along the coast.
5. Whenever within coöperating distance, to aid the armies along the rivers and coasts in the various campaigns.

The Blockade of the South. Lincoln's order to blockade the southern coast was issued April 19, 1861. No ships from any country were to be allowed to enter or leave the ports of the South, and armed vessels were stationed along the coast to make the order effective. This stopped an extensive trade between the South and Great Britain.

The South produced great quantities of cotton. Her exports in 1860 amounted to \$202,000,000, most of which were shipped to England. She had but few machine-shops, gun-factories or foundries, but by the sale of cotton in Europe expected to purchase military supplies.

EFFECT OF THE BLOCKADE. By reason of the blockade but little cotton could be exported. The price fell to 8 cents a pound in the South and rose to 60 cents in England. Of the 4,000,000 persons in Great Britain dependent upon southern cotton for their support, hundreds of thousands were thrown out of employment. At least half a million had to rely upon public charity for food. The Confederates believed that England would break the blockade to protect her manufacturing interests, and thus open the way for the South to get supplies for her armies.

"BLOCKADE-RUNNERS." The "blockade-runners" were long, low-decked, foreign-made steamers, built for speed and designed to escape the blockade unnoticed. They drew only a few feet of water, and burned anthracite coal, which made but little smoke. Thus they could glide in and out of the shallow waters of the southern coast where the heavier blockading vessels could not follow. They carried the cotton from the southern states to Nassau, the capital of the Bahama Islands, and to the West Indies, where it was taken upon vessels bound for England, and in return, they brought cargoes of British supplies to feed, clothe and equip southern troops. During the war more than 1,000 of these vessels were captured and over 300 sunk.

Confederate Cruisers, or Commerce-Destroyers. These cruisers were a class of armed vessels, most of which were purchased from private companies in England, and sent out to destroy the commerce of the North. They roamed the seas, generally the highways of commerce, in search of merchantmen, which when the war opened were to be found in all the ports of the world. They kept a sharp lookout, and when any cargo of merchandise hove in sight they would seize and burn it. The

Sumter, *Florida*, *Alabama* and *Shenandoah* were among the most destructive of these vessels.

The Trent Affair, 1861. While Captain Wilkes, in command of the *San Jacinto*, was in search of the cruiser *Sumter*, he heard that James M. Mason and John Slidell, Confederate commissioners to Great Britain and France, had escaped the blockade, and were about to sail from Havana for England in the British steamer *Trent*. So Captain Wilkes went in search of the *Trent*, intercepted her, and took from her Mason and Slidell. He had no right to do this, as it was a power which England claimed the right to exercise, years before, and which she had been compelled to abandon as a result of the war of 1812. The seizure of these envoys produced great excitement in England, and if the counsels of Lincoln had not prevailed, might have led to war. "We shall have to give these men up and apologize for what we have done," he said. They were consequently released, and sailed for Europe January 1, 1862.

The Merrimac and the Monitor. The Unionists, fearing that they could not hold the great navy yard at Norfolk, Virginia, abandoned the place, April, 1861. Before leaving it they sank most of the ships and set fire to the buildings. The Confederates at once took possession and raised the sunken vessels. One of these ships, the *Merrimac*, which they rechristened the *Virginia*, they made into an ironclad by covering her sloping sides with a double coating of iron plates, each two inches thick. At her bow they fastened a great cast-iron ram. This was the beginning of a new era in naval warfare. On March 8, 1862, the *Merrimac* steamed out into Hampton Roads to destroy the Federal fleet of wooden war-vessels. Ships and land batteries opened a cannonade on the new antagonist, but with no more effect than if they had thrown rubber balls against her. With her beak she rammed a hole in the *Cumberland* and sank her with officers and crew still on board. She next turned to the *Congress*, which had grounded, riddled her with shot and shell, and set her on fire. On the approach of night the iron champion withdrew to Norfolk, hoping to renew the attack the next morning.



BATTLE BETWEEN THE MERRIMAC AND MONITOR.



JOHN ERICSSON.

During the night the little ironclad *Monitor*,* designed by John Ericsson and built in New York, arrived, after a tempestuous ocean voyage, to oppose the *Merrimac* and to guard the remaining Union vessels. The iron-coated deck of the *Monitor* was only about three feet above the water. On the top of the deck was an iron-coated cylinder or turret, which could be rotated so as to fire in any direction the two eleven-inch cannon mounted within. The construction of the *Monitor* had been rushed with the greatest haste, so as to match ironclad with ironclad.

On Sunday morning, March 9th, the *Merrimac* steamed forth to complete her work of destruction. The *Monitor* had taken a station near the *Minnesota*, which was stuck fast in the shallows. As the huge *Merrimac* approached, carrying ten guns, the little *Monitor* boldly advanced to meet her, and started one of the greatest naval battles of modern times. The con-

* From the round, cheese-like appearance of the turret, the *Monitor* was called the "Yankee cheese-box."

flict was long and furious. Neither vessel was seriously injured, but the *Merrimac*, after fighting five hours, withdrew to Norfolk.

THE ALABAMA.* The most notorious of all Confederate cruisers was the *Alabama*. She was built at Liverpool for Confederate service, and put to sea against the protests of Charles Francis Adams, our minister at London. For two years she cruised the Atlantic and Indian Oceans and the Mediterranean Sea in search of Union merchant vessels. Her plan was always the same: with a British flag flying, she would approach the intended victim, and then, suddenly raising the Confederate colors, would seize and burn her defenseless prey. Sixty-six vessels, amounting with their cargoes to nearly \$7,000,000 in value, were destroyed. The Federal man-of-war *Kearsarge*, commanded by Captain Winslow, finally engaged the *Alabama* in battle, June 19, 1864, off the coast of Cherbourg, France, and sank her in less than an hour.

The *Shenandoah* and *Florida* were also both built and manned in England. The former was armed, and was turned over to the Confederates at one of the Madeira Islands; the latter at one of the Bahamas. The *Florida*† was captured at Bahia, Brazil, but the *Shenandoah* roved the seas, especially around Alaska, until the end of the war, when she was turned over to the Federal government.

During the war the United States was in no position to compel England to observe neutrality obligations, but after the war closed, England was required to pay for all damage done to American commerce by vessels which she had allowed to be built for Confederate use. (See Alabama Claims, p. 409.)

Other Coast Operations. In addition to the great work of blockading the coast, of assisting the army in its many campaigns, and of searching for Confederate cruisers, the navy had

* While in the dock she was known as "No. 290." She set sail under an English flag with an English crew. When at the Azore Islands she was turned over to Confederate officers, and her name changed to the *Alabama*.

† The *Florida* was captured in the neutral harbor Bahia, in violation of treaty of rights. She was to be returned to Brazil, but while on the way there she was sunk by an unforeseen "accident."

the task of capturing the forts and harbors along the coast of the Confederacy.

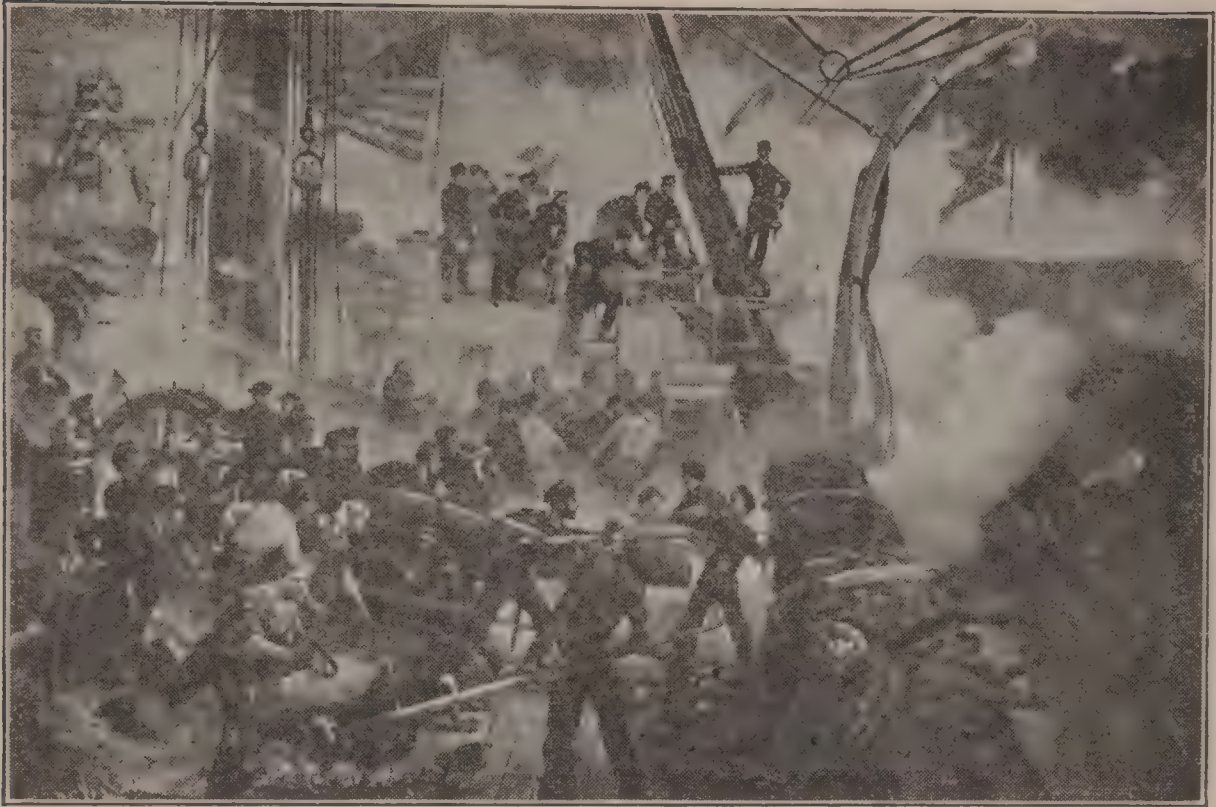
Hatteras Inlet, North Carolina, was taken in August, 1861, and Port Royal, South Carolina, in November, 1861. Roanoke Island, Elizabeth City, Newbern and other places along the coast of North Carolina were captured in 1862, and when McClellan seized Yorktown, the great navy yard at Norfolk, Virginia, was abandoned by the Confederates.

In the spring of 1863 a fleet of seven ironclads of the *Monitor* type made an unsuccessful attack on Charleston. A land and naval force also systematically bombarded the town and forts during the summer, but the Confederates remained in possession until Sherman's march through Carolina, when they abandoned the place from which had been fired the first shot of the Civil War.

After persistent and hard fighting, Fort Fisher, another haven for blockade-runners, was captured, January 15, 1865, by a combined land and naval force. General Schofield followed up this victory by capturing Wilmington, North Carolina, February 22, 1865, and then went to reinforce Sherman at Goldsboro.

Mobile Bay. Mobile was a favorite resort for blockade-runners, and after the fall of New Orleans was the only Confederate port remaining on the Gulf. Realizing its importance, the Confederates had carefully guarded it by building two strong forts, Morgan and Gaines, one on each side of the entrance to the bay, and lined the channel with torpedoes. Three gunboats and a powerful ironclad ram, the *Tennessee*, stood guard. To Commodore Farragut,* the hero of New Orleans, was assigned the task of clearing the bay. Mounting the rigging of his flagship, where he could direct the battle, he ran the Union fleet, with its vessels lashed together two and two, past the forts and torpedo mines, amid a terrific fire from the enemy, without the loss of a single ship. In a short but fierce battle every Confederate vessel was captured (August 5, 1864). Both forts were soon after taken, but the city of Mobile was held by the Confederates until April, 1865.

* He was tied fast to the mast, to prevent him from falling in case he should be shot.



FARRAGUT AT MOBILE BAY.

ALBEMARLE. After the destruction of the two Confederate ironclads the *Merrimac* and the *Tennessee*, the ironclad ram *Albemarle* was the only formidable one remaining. After she had twice done much damage to the Union fleet, Lieutenant Cushing volunteered to destroy her. One dark night in October (1864), in a small boat, he approached the ironclad off Plymouth, North Carolina, and sent a torpedo crashing through her. Cushing jumped into the dark waters and made a miraculous escape, while all but one of his companions were captured by the enemy.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

How many vessels were there in the United States navy in 1861? In the South? What five duties fell upon the United States navy? What is meant by blockade? What ports were blockaded? What was a blockade-runner? What interests did England have in the South? Tell of the Confederate cruisers. Where was the *Alabama* built? What was the *Trent* affair? Tell of the battle of the *Merrimac* and *Monitor*. Of the battle of the *Alabama* and *Kearsarge*. Of the battle of Charleston Harbor. Of the Battle of Mobile Bay. What was the strength of the navy in 1865? At what inland battles did the navy greatly aid the land forces? Did the navy accomplish the tasks assigned to it? Give the names of some naval officers.

CHAPTER XXXI.

CAMPAIGNS OF THE CIVIL WAR.

ARMY OF THE POTOMAC.

Plans of the Army of the Potomac. The aim of the Army of the Potomac was to defeat the Confederate Army in Virginia and to capture Richmond, the capital of the Confederacy. McClellan, with skill and energy, soon converted the raw troops into a splendid army, but he was slow to lead them forward to meet his opponent. A month after Grant's brilliant victory at Forts Henry and Donelson, the army of the Potomac was still at Washington. "On to Richmond!" again became the cry of the North. Lincoln wanted McClellan to march his army overland. By this plan the same army that marched against Richmond would protect Washington in the rear. McClellan wished to go down the Potomac river and Chesapeake Bay and move up the peninsula formed by the York and James rivers. He was allowed to have his way on condition that a sufficient force be left to protect Washington.

Generals Banks and Frémont were sent into the Shenandoah Valley, while General McDowell was to march through Fredericksburg and join McClellan near Richmond.

Peninsular Campaign. McClellan's army of more than 100,000 men embarked at Alexandria in March, 1862. They landed at Fortress Monroe, and spent a month in preparing to capture the historic village of Yorktown. When all was ready the Confederates slipped away. The Union advance under General Joseph E. Hooker overtook and defeated the Confederate rear at Williamsburg, May 5th, a month after the battle of Shiloh. McClellan moved up the peninsula, and made White House Landing his depot of supplies. Anxiously awaiting the arrival of McDowell's army, he placed part of his

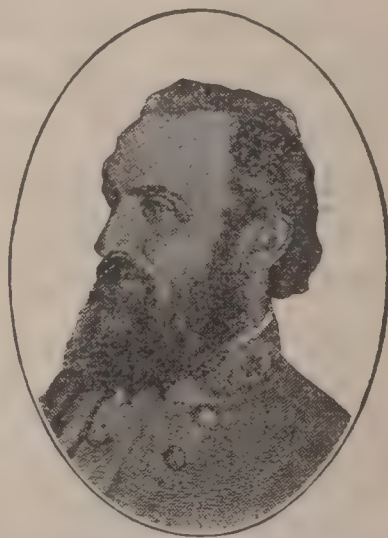
troops on the north side of the Chickahominy river, and part on the south side of the stream at Seven Pines. Here he was furiously attacked by the Confederates (May 31st), who the next day renewed the battle at Fair Oaks, but were repulsed. General Johnston,* having been seriously wounded, was succeeded by General Robert E. Lee, a man of great military ability, who continued to direct the Confederate armies until the close of the war.



GEN. ROBERT E. LEE.

Stonewall Jackson's Raid.

Meanwhile, Thomas J. Jackson (familiarily known as "Stonewall" Jackson), a daring and brilliant leader, had been sent up the Shenandoah Valley to oppose the movements of Banks and Frémont, to threaten Washington, and to keep McDowell from uniting with McClellan. With a force of 15,000 men he marched rapidly down the valley, defeated Banks at Winchester, and cleared the valley of Federal troops. The authorities at Washington became alarmed. McDowell was recalled, and sent with 20,000 men to aid Banks and Frémont in an effort to capture or destroy Jackson's army. But this wily general, scenting the danger, beat a hasty retreat, and appeared at Richmond in time to aid Lee in driving back McClellan's army.



GEN. STONEWALL JACKSON.

Seven Days' Battle, June 26 to July 1, 1862. After McDowell was called north, Lee began a series of terrific assaults, known as the Seven Days' Battle, upon the Union army. At

* J. E. Johnston was incapacitated until fall. His next service of importance was rendered at Vicksburg, 1863.

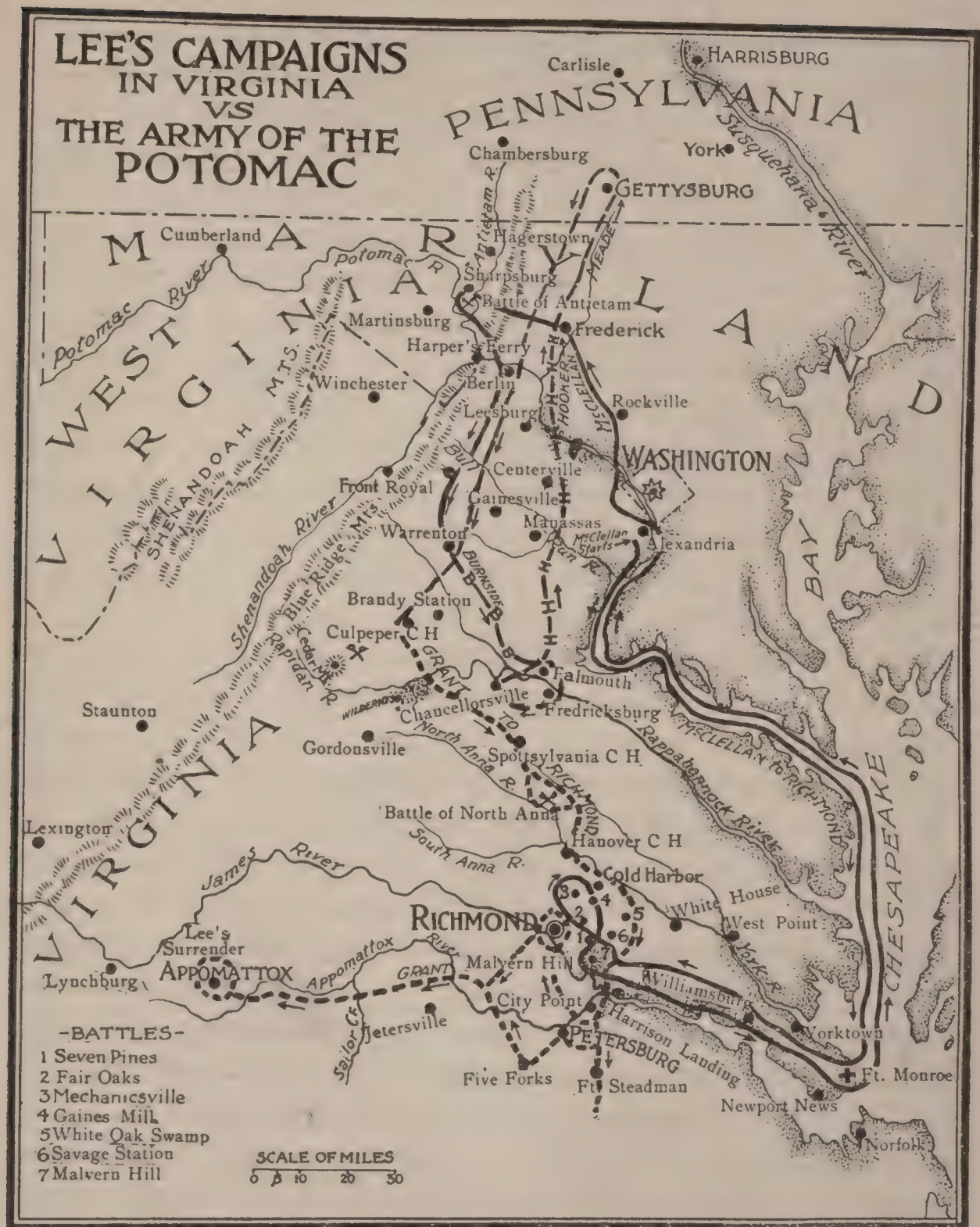
Mechanicsville (June 26th) he was repulsed, but he renewed the battle the next day at Gaines's Mill. McClellan then began to change his base and transfer his wagon-trains of supplies from the York river to the James river. Lee was quick to seize the advantage. Again and again he attacked McClellan's army—at White Oak Swamp, Savage Station, Frazier's Farm, and Malvern Hill. McClellan withdrew to Harrison Landing, and later moved north to the defense of Washington. In this long and bloody conflict Lee lost more men than McClellan, but the moral effect of the victory rested with the Confederates. McClellan conducted a masterly retreat, but failed wholly to do the task for which he set out. He was a superb drill-master, but slow to lead his men in aggressive fighting. He thought more of saving his army from defeat than of leading it to victory.

After these battles Lee prepared to invade Maryland, making his movements to the north at the same time that Bragg was invading Kentucky.*

The Army of Virginia and Second Bull Run. The three separate armies under Banks, Frémont and McDowell were united (June 26, 1862), into one, called the Army of Virginia, and placed under the command of General John Pope. This army stretched across the state of Virginia from the Potomac to the Blue Ridge, with its right wing at Cedar Mountain and its left near Manassas Junction. Jackson defeated Banks at Cedar Mountain; then, joining Lee, the entire Confederate army fell upon the Union army at the old Bull Run battlefield, and after two days' hard fighting (August 29–30) drove it back upon the fortifications of Washington. Pope resigned his command and his army was united with the Army of the Potomac.† Halleck in the mean time had arrived from the West, and assumed the duties of general-in-chief, with headquarters at Washington, while McClellan, now again actively commanding the Army of the Potomac, advanced to meet Lee.

* By the invasion of the North Lee hoped to carry the burden of the war into the North, to receive more recruits, and, by winning a victory on northern soil, induce England to recognize the independence of the Confederacy.

† The Army of the Potomac was taken from Harrison Landing in transports to Washington, and should have arrived in time to take part in the second Bull Run battle.



Trace the movements of the Army of the Potomac, giving plans, battles and results, from Alexandria to Fortress Monroe; to Williamsburg; to Seven Pines, Fair Oaks, Mechanicsville, Gaines's Mill, Malvern Hill, and Fort Monroe; to Alexandria; thence to Antietam; to Fredericksburg; to Chancellorsville; to Gettysburg; to Culpeper Court House; to the Wilderness, Spottsylvania Court House, North Anna, Cold Harbor, Richmond, and Petersburg; to Appomattox.

Lee's Invasion of Maryland, and the Battle of Antietam.
Lee's victorious hosts, flushed with victory, crossed the Potomac in high spirits, expecting a large number of recruits.

But the people of Maryland did not flock to Lee's standard. Instead, he soon found the Army of the Potomac in close pursuit. McClellan drove Lee from South Mountain Pass after a sharp battle, and on September 16th and 17th engaged him in one of the bloodiest battles of the war, at Antietam Creek. After this battle Lee recrossed the Potomac, and moved up the Shenandoah Valley. Stonewall Jackson had again made a brilliant detour, captured a garrison of 11,000 men at Harper's Ferry, and joined his chief in time to take part in the battle of Antietam. McClellan halted for about six weeks after the battle, and then followed east of the mountains, but made no effort to attack the shattered Confederate forces. Because he lacked energy and dispatch in pursuing the campaign, at Warrenton he was relieved of the command of the army, and Ambrose E. Burnside was appointed to succeed him.

The Emancipation Proclamation. When the war began there was no intention on the part of the people of the North to interfere with slavery in the southern states; but as the war progressed, sentiment gradually changed. The slaves were a source of great strength to the South. They served the families, cared for the plantations, raised supplies to support the soldiers in the field, and performed labor in the army. Northern leaders also believed that England would be less likely to recognize the independence of the South if the government should declare for the freedom of the slaves. While the President had no constitutional right to free the slaves, he could do so as a war measure. It is the right and duty of the President to suppress rebellion by any means necessary to success. The slaves helped to raise the crops that fed the armies which fought the government. To abolish slavery would therefore weaken the southern armies. In this Lincoln found a technical legal ground for proclaiming freedom to the slaves. He now waited only for a favorable time to take this step, and made a solemn vow that if Lee were defeated he would issue a proclamation freeing the slaves. Lee's retreat after Antietam was sufficient for Lincoln's purpose, and five days later, on September 22, 1862, he warned the seceded states that unless

they laid down their arms and returned to the Union before January 1st he would set the slaves within their territory free. None of the states heeded the warning; so, on January 1, 1863, he issued the famous Emancipation Proclamation,* saying in effect: "I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated states† and parts of states are, and henceforth shall be, free."

Battle of Fredericksburg, December 13, 1862. Burnside, after taking command, moved toward Richmond along the north bank of the Rappahannock to Falmouth. Lee went along the south side of the river, and fortified his army at Fredericksburg. Thus the two armies lay almost within view of each other, awaiting the hour of battle. Burnside's army greatly outnumbered Lee's, but Lee's army was posted behind earthworks and stone walls along the hills of Fredericksburg.‡ The task of taking this stronghold was almost hopeless. With more daring than wisdom, Burnside crossed the river with his troops and ordered an assault (December 13, 1862). Column after column was mowed down, with frightful slaughter. Burnside wished to renew the battle the next day, but his division commanders dissuaded him, and he recrossed the river to Falmouth.

Battle of Chancellorsville (May 2nd and 3rd, 1863.) At his own request, Burnside was relieved of command and General Joseph E. Hooker was appointed to succeed him. The troops were gloomy and dispirited. An average of two hundred soldiers were deserting daily, and thousands were absent from duty. Hooker set to work to organize and drill, and soon had his army of 120,000 men in good trim for fighting. He crossed the river far above Fredericksburg with the main army, while Sedgwick's division crossed below the city, expecting to draw Lee's army from its fortified position, and crush it between the two divisions; but the two Union divisions did

* The Proclamation did not apply to any of the loyal slave states. In April, 1862, Congress had passed an act freeing the slaves in the District of Columbia.

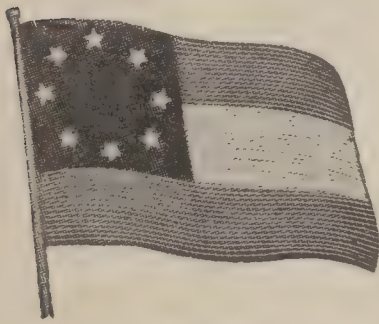
† Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana (excepting certain parishes), Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia except West Virginia.

‡ What battle was fought in the West in the same month?

not attack at the same time. Lee boldly sallied forth, although the Union army outnumbered his, two to one, defeated Hooker* at Chancellorsville, ten miles southwest of Fredericksburg, May 2nd and 3rd, before Sedgwick arrived, and then turned and defeated Sedgwick's division, forcing it to recross the river.†

Gloom in the North. This was the second disastrous defeat of the Army of the Potomac within a period of six months. The Union soldiers were just as brave and fought just as well as the Confederates, but they needed a leader who could cope with

CONFEDERATE FLAGS.



"Stars and Bars," 1861.



Official Flag, 1863.

such able generals as Lee and Jackson in planning and doing. Many began to doubt the ability of the North to subdue the South. For the Union cause the days following this battle were the darkest of the war, but in the midst of this gloom and despair, Lincoln, planning to prosecute the war with vigor, issued a call for 100,000 more troops.

Lee's Second Invasion of the North.

"On to Washington!" became the cry of the South after the two great victories at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville. They hoped to invade the North, win another great victory on northern soil, and then dictate terms of peace. Lee heeded the cry. He left Fredericks-

burg June 3rd, with eighty thousand of the best troops that ever served under the stars and bars, marched down the Shenandoah Valley, crossed Maryland, and pushed rapidly into Pennsylvania toward Harrisburg. General Hooker hurried north to defend Washington and drive the enemy from Union soil. At

* While General Hooker was on the portico of a house, directing the battle, a cannon-ball struck the pillar by which he was standing, and rendered him unconscious for some time.

† Stonewall Jackson, by a circuitous route, surprised the unprotected Union right about 6 P. M., and put it to flight. This, the most noted of all Jackson's brilliant achievements, was his last. That night, after the battle, while he and his staff were reconnoitering the Federal lines, they were mistaken for Union cavalry, and a volley fired at them by his own men resulted in the death of Jackson.

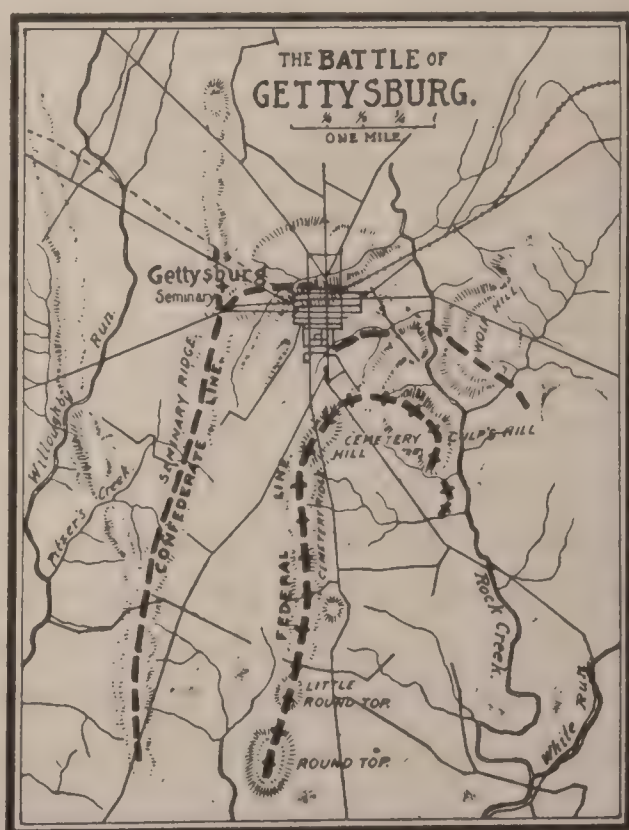
Frederick, Maryland, he was relieved of the command, and General George G. Meade succeeded him, June 28, 1863.

Battle of Gettysburg, July 1st, 2nd and 3rd, 1863. Meade followed Lee into Pennsylvania with 90,000 men. The advance of the two armies unexpectedly met at the village of Gettysburg, July 1st, and there began the greatest battle of the war. The Union forces, although at first greatly outnumbered, fought stubbornly to check the Confederates until more Union troops could arrive. Gradually, the Federal troops were forced back through Gettysburg with a loss of 5,000 prisoners. Both Meade and Lee prepared for a decisive battle. All night under the light of the full moon and during the next morning the scattered commands



GEN. GEORGE G. MEADE.

of the two armies raced for the chosen field. Meade formed his battle-line along Cemetery Ridge (see map); the north end resting on Culp's Hill, the south on Little Round Top. Lee placed his army along Seminary Ridge, lying about a mile west of Cemetery Ridge and parallel to it. On July 2nd Lee made two furious assaults upon the Union lines: one on the right, at Culp's Hill, the other on the left, at Little Round Top. The Confederates



GETTYSBURG FIELD.

pressed up the slopes of Little Round Top, but after a fierce hand-to-hand fight were driven back, leaving the Union troops in possession of the coveted hill.

On the third day Lee planned to break the Union center. The forenoon was spent in preparation for the final effort. About one o'clock one hundred and thirty Confederate cannon opened fire upon the center of the Union line. Meade responded with eighty guns. For two hours the fiercest cannon duel ever fought on the American continent shook the hills about Gettysburg. Suddenly the cannonade ceased. Lee, thinking the opportune moment had come, sent General Pickett with 17,000 men, the flower and pride of the Confederate army, to break through the center and sweep the Union army from the field. Forward they came in three columns across an open plain. The Union cannon on the crest of the hill and the long line of riflemen opened a deadly fire upon the advancing columns. On they came, their lines growing thin, but still they came, at terrible sacrifice, to the very muzzles of the Union guns. A desperate hand-to-hand struggle ensued. The Union columns rushed upon them from every side, and drove their shattered forces from the field. The Union victory was complete. The loss of life was frightful. Nearly 50,000 men were dead or wounded on the field, about one-half on each side. Besides these, 6,000 Confederates were taken prisoners.

The defeat of Lee at Gettysburg was sad news for the South, made doubly sad next day by the surrender of Vicksburg and Pemberton's whole army (July 4, 1863). This was the beginning of the end. After this Lee made no more invasions of the North, for he was compelled to act wholly on the defensive in an effort to save his army.

Retreat of Lee. Lee withdrew his defeated army across the Potomac and up the Shenandoah Valley, and Meade slowly followed east of the mountains to Culpeper Court House and Brandy Station. Both armies settled down to a period of rest and inactivity—the Confederates on the south side of the Rapidan river, and the Union army some distance north of it.

The scene of war was transferred to southeast Tennessee. Lee sent Longstreet to aid Bragg at Chickamauga, and Hooker was afterward sent from Meade's army to aid Grant at Chattanooga. (See page 358.)

Volunteering and Drafting.—IN THE NORTH. There were two ways to raise soldiers for the war—volunteering and drafting: the first was used throughout the war; the second, only when not enough volunteers responded to the call. The first draft or Conscription Act was passed by Congress in 1863. An enrollment was made of the names of all able-bodied men (with stated exceptions) between the ages of twenty and thirty-five years, and unmarried men to the age of forty-five. From this list a certain per cent was drawn by lot. Each man drafted was required to join the army, or to produce a substitute, or pay \$300 to the government.*

IN THE SOUTH. Drafting in the South began as early as 1862, and included all white men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five. Before the end of the war, boys of sixteen and seventeen and men from forty-five to sixty were required to enlist for a "reserve home guard." This taking of both youth and old age into the service led General Butler to remark, "The Confederates are robbing both the cradle and the grave."

At the close of the war there were over two and one-half million names enrolled from which to fill up the Union armies, while the South had used almost every available man, and no longer could fill up the depleted ranks.

Opposition to the War. There were a number of persons in the North called "Copperheads," who opposed the war from the beginning. For a time they feared to say much in opposition to it, but finally became bolder, and denounced the war and the way it was conducted. The most bitter opposition occurred in New York City. A mob rose in arms, July 13, 1863, stopped the draft for several days, burned buildings, attacked police, and killed about a hundred persons, mostly negroes. Troops were hurried to the scene, several hundred of the rioters were killed, and order was restored.

Presidential Election, 1864. The election of 1864 was one of the most critical in the history of the Nation. People in the North were divided on the question of continuing the war and

* In July, 1864, the provision allowing them to pay \$300 was repealed.

on reëlecting Lincoln as President. Objections to Lincoln came from two sources: those who opposed the war and wanted peace at whatever cost, and those who wanted the war pushed with greater vigor. These dissensions among the people in the North and the danger of foreign intervention in behalf of the South added greatly to the difficulties confronting the administration. The task thus resting upon Lincoln was most stupendous.

THE RADICAL REPUBLICANS agreed in the main with the Lincoln Republicans on the preservation of the Union and on the abolition of slavery. But they also demanded that the war be carried on vigorously, and "that the lands of the rebels be confiscated" and "be distributed among the soldiers and actual settlers." They nominated John C. Frémont, but he declined the nomination and recommended that his followers support Lincoln.

THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY nominated General George B. McClellan. The platform declared that, as four years of war had failed to restore the Union, "justice, humanity, liberty and public welfare demanded that immediate efforts be made for a cessation of hostilities." McClellan did not indorse either the letter or the spirit of the platform, but said in his formal acceptance: "The Union must be preserved at all hazards." His attitude on the war and the platform led many war Democrats to vote for him who would otherwise have supported Lincoln.

THE UNION REPUBLICAN PARTY was made up of Republicans and Democrats. It renominated Abraham Lincoln, and demanded the preservation of the Union, the abolition of slavery, and the pushing of the war to a speedy close. Andrew Johnson of Tennessee, a war Democrat and Union man, was named for Vice-President. The great majority of the northern people had confidence in Lincoln's management of the war, and he was reëlected by a majority of 400,000 votes. Only three states cast their electoral votes against him: Delaware, Kentucky, and New Jersey.

Grant in Command, May, 1864. Grant's brilliant vic-



GEN. PHILIP SHERIDAN. GEN. ULYSSES S. GRANT. GEN. WILLIAM T. SHERMAN.
The only men in the United States who have held the rank of General.

tories in the West had attracted the attention of the nation. He was looked upon as the man best fitted to lead the armies to victory. He was accordingly made General-in-Chief of all the Union armies, with the rank of Lieutenant-General.* All the armies, East and West, moved by his orders. During the first three years of the war the various armies acted independently, thus enabling the Confederates to reinforce points of attack by withdrawing from points not attacked. Instead of remaining at Washington as Halleck had done, he made his

* Washington was the only man before this time who had held the rank of Lieutenant-General. Scott was Brevet Lieutenant-General. The descending order of military rank is: General, Lieutenant-General, Major-General, and Brigadier-General. The rank of General had never been conferred on anyone before the war or during the war; but at the close, this high title was conferred upon Grant, for the distinguished service he had rendered the nation. After he became President, the rank was given to Sherman, and later to Sheridan. Since Sheridan's death, the highest rank in the army has been Lieutenant-General.

headquarters in the field, with the Army of the Potomac, retaining Meade as chief in command of the army.

Grant's Plans. Grant met Sherman in the spring of 1864 and formed plans to prosecute the war with greater vigor. The Confederates had only two chief centers of power left, Richmond and Atlanta. Lee had about 62,000 troops on the south bank of the Rapidan, and J. E. Johnston had about 70,000 troops at Dalton, Georgia, near Chattanooga. Grant directed Butler to operate against Richmond on the south side of the James river; he ordered Sherman "to move against Johnston's army, to break it up, and to penetrate the interior of the enemy's country, inflicting all the damage possible"; and to Meade he said: "Lee's army is your objective point. Wherever Lee goes, there you will go." All armies were to move against the Confederates, May 1st, with such energy that neither Lee nor Johnston could spare a man to reinforce the other.

SHERMAN'S MARCH.

Sherman's Movement for Atlanta. On the very day that Grant set out to crush Lee and take Richmond, General Sherman began the campaign to defeat Johnston and capture Atlanta, then an important railroad center, with factories, foundries and shops for making supplies for the Confederate armies. Johnston was entrenched at Dalton, and Sherman set out from Chattanooga May 5, 1864. Both Johnston and Sherman were able generals and conducted a skillful campaign.

The entire march was a series of skirmishes and battles. Engagements took place at Resaca, Dallas, and Kenesaw Mountain. By a series of flank movements Sherman drew the enemy from position to position until within sight of Atlanta. Johnston refused to fight unless his army was behind intrenchments. This policy was distasteful to Jefferson Davis, who removed him from command and put General J. B. Hood in his place. Hood proved quite as rash as he was brave. Immediately upon taking command he made three furious attacks on the Union army near Atlanta, July 20th, 22nd and 28th, with great dis-



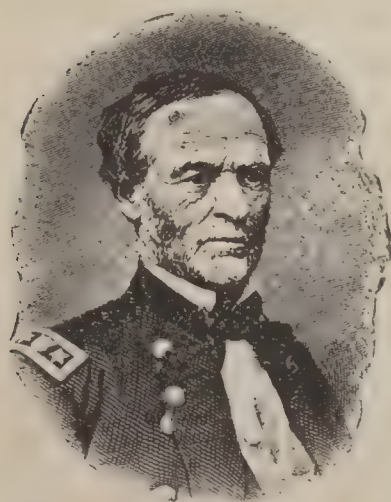
Tell of Sherman's march from Chattanooga to Atlanta; to the Sea; to Raleigh. Give objects, battles and results. Tell of Hood's movement to Nashville.

aster to his command.* He retired to the fortifications at Atlanta, but abandoned the city, September 2nd, to avoid the fate of Pemberton at Vicksburg. Atlanta, "The Gate City of the South," was captured, but Hood's army, now numbering only 40,000, had escaped.

Hood's Retreat. Soon after his defeat at Atlanta, Hood, with the hope of drawing Sherman's army out of Georgia, turned northward, destroying the railroad over which the Union army got supplies. Sherman followed to the northern part of the state, but could not overtake Hood, who, as Sherman said, "could twist and turn like a fox's tail and wear out any army." So, sending General George H. Thomas to look after Hood, Sherman turned about to begin his march to the sea.

* The Confederate loss was 18,000 men; Union loss, 7,000.

Battles of Franklin and Nashville. General Thomas moved through Tennessee, concentrating his army at Nashville. Here he collected about 55,000 men to confront Hood, whose army, including 10,000 cavalry under General Nathan B. Forrest, now numbered 50,000. A grave responsibility rested with General Thomas. His defeat not only would have placed the Confederates in control of the Southwest, but would have destroyed the effect of Sherman's march to the sea. But Thomas was equal to the occasion. He sent General John M. Schofield with two corps to retard the advance of the enemy. In a desperate fight at Franklin, November 30, 1864, Hood was repulsed with heavy loss, but Schofield retreated to Nashville to join the main army. Hood followed, and laid siege to the place. But on December 15th, Thomas, while threatening Hood's right wing, fell heavily on his left, driving it from the field. The next day the battle was renewed; and by night the enemy was routed and in full flight. The battered army fled south, closely pursued by Thomas as far as the Tennessee river. The remnants of Hood's army were taken to Tupelo, where General Johnston again took command.



GEN. WILLIAM T. SHERMAN.

Sherman's March to the Sea. Sherman destroyed all foundries and factories at Atlanta, and required all residents to move either north or south as their sympathies led them. When appealed to by the mayor he said: "War is cruelty, and you cannot refine it. You might as well appeal against the thunder-storm as against the terrible hardships of war." He proposed to make it more terrible yet to the South by marching his 60,000 veterans from Atlanta to the Sea, living on the country as he went, destroying railroads, mills, factories, and everything that could help support the Confederate armies.

November 15, 1864, he severed all communications with the

North. Marching in four columns and covering a strip sixty miles wide, he devastated the country. Great foraging parties went forth each morning like armies of hungry locusts, scouring the country far and wide for anything that could be eaten by man or beast, returning in the evening with cattle, hogs, horses, fowls, and wagon-loads of provisions. Miles of railroad were torn up, the ties burned, the rails heated and twisted so the roads could not be repaired. The South could offer very little resistance to the advancing columns of "Yankees." Not a soldier sent or received a letter or message from the time the army left Atlanta until it reached Savannah.* After the capture of the city, December 22, 1864, Sherman sent this graphic dispatch to Lincoln: "I beg to present you as a Christmas present the city of Savannah, with 150 heavy guns and plenty of ammunition; also about 25,000 bales of cotton."†

March through the Carolinas. After a month of rest at Savannah the great army, with its train of 2,500 wagons, set out for a march of over 400 miles north. Rain, mud and the crossing of many rivers made the journey more difficult than the march to the sea, which was made parallel to the rivers and in fine weather. Columbia, the capital of South Carolina, was taken without a struggle, February 17. Charleston, with its fateful Fort Sumter, was evacuated next day by General Hardee, who with his army of 14,000 men went north to join a formidable force which was being organized to oppose Sherman, with Johnston in command. That able officer attacked Sherman at Averysboro (March 15), and Bentonville (March 19), but was repulsed in both battles, and with Sherman in pursuit retreated through Goldsboro to Raleigh.

ARMY OF THE POTOMAC—Continued.

Battle of the Wilderness, May 5th and 6th, 1864. The Army of the Potomac crossed the Rapidan May 4th, and met Lee's army near Chancellorsville, in a woods and dense thicket

* The distance in a straight line from Chattanooga to Atlanta is 100 miles; from Atlanta to Savannah, 240 miles.

† The message was taken by boat, December 22, to Fortress Monroe, then telegraphed to Washington, and reached Lincoln on Christmas Eve.

of tangled underbrush called the Wilderness. A hard battle ensued, lasting two days (May 5th and 6th). Lee retreated to his intrenchments and Grant moved toward Richmond, expecting to draw Lee out of the Wilderness and compel him to fight in the open. When the Union soldiers saw that Grant was pushing on toward Richmond they burst into wild shouts of delight. In this "Overland Campaign"* toward Richmond Grant made a series of assaults on Lee's army, and then by flank movement drew him from his fortifications and finally reached Richmond.

Spottsylvania Court House (May 9th-12th). By a rapid march over a direct route, Lee reached Spottsylvania ahead of Grant and intrenched his army. Here there was hard fighting for several days (May 9th-12th). So fierce was the encounter at one place, that it was called the "bloody angle." During the battle Grant sent his famous dispatch to Halleck, in which he proposed "to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." It did take all summer, and all winter, too.

Co-operative Movements. On May 8th, General Philip H. Sheridan began a raid toward Richmond, defeating the Confederate cavalry under J. E. B. Stuart, and returning to Grant's army in two weeks, after destroying railroads, stores, and supplies. At the same time General Butler, in command at Fortress Monroe, threatened Richmond from the east.

North Anna and Cold Harbor (May-June). Another flank movement brought the armies together at North Anna River (May 23rd). Lee had fortified his position to such advantage that Grant again moved forward, only to find his way blocked at Cold Harbor, ten miles from Richmond. Again Grant attacked Lee's strongly fortified position (June 1st and 3rd), but was repulsed with heavy losses. This bloody battle was the end of the series of terrific assaults upon the intrenched Confederate army. Grant had lost 60,000 men in the campaign. Fighting behind breastworks, Lee's losses were little more than half that number.

* McClellan's advance on Richmond was by water, Grant's by land; hence the name, "Overland Campaign."

Movement on Petersburg. Grant next crossed the James river and attempted to capture Petersburg, an important railroad center about twenty-two miles south of Richmond. But Lee rapidly moved forces into the defenses of Petersburg, and prepared to make a final, desperate stand there and at Richmond, while Grant settled down to a siege of the cities.

Early's Raid North. Hoping to draw Grant from Richmond and Petersburg, Lee, in July, sent General Early with 20,000 troops for an invasion of the North. Dashing up the Shenandoah Valley, he crossed the mountains into Maryland toward Washington, and defeated a smaller force under General Lew Wallace near Frederick. He was within six miles of Washington, and then, continuing his raid northwest, burned the town of Chambersburg, Pennsylvania.

Sheridan's Raid. General Philip Sheridan was sent to protect the North and cope with the invaders. He defeated Early's army at Winchester, September 19, 1864, after a hard-fought battle, and again at Fisher's Hill, three days later. Instructions were sent to Sheridan to lay waste the rich and fertile valley of the Shenandoah, that it might no longer be open to Confederate raids and furnish supplies for their armies. Sheridan burned barns and mills, destroyed or carried off grain and forage, and drove away a large amount of stock. So completely was the valley devastated, that it was said "a crow flying over the valley had to carry a knapsack with rations, to live."

CEDAR CREEK. Sheridan was called to Washington on official business. During his absence, General Early, after being reinforced, surprised the Union army at Cedar Creek early in the morning of October 19th, and drove it in confusion toward Winchester, where



SHERIDAN'S RAID.

Sheridan had spent the night on his return from Washington. The booming of cannon told him of battle. He rode in haste to his army, and, dashing along the lines, waved his cap in the air and shouted, "We are all right! Never mind, boys—we'll whip them yet!" General Wright, who commanded in his absence, was already re-forming the broken lines. The result of Sheridan's appearance was like magic. The troops rallied and turned defeat into a famous victory. Early was driven from the valley and Sheridan soon went to rejoin Grant, who had invested Richmond and Petersburg.

Siege of Richmond and Petersburg. The siege of Richmond and Petersburg lasted from June, 1864, to April, 1865. During this time Grant kept Lee constantly occupied by striking heavy blows upon his lines—now here, now there, by threatening at one point and attacking at another, and sending the cavalry on raids to cut off supplies and recruits. Day by day Lee saw his army wearing away faster than the recruits built it up; but Grant's heavy losses were made good by new troops. Lee felt the Union lines tighten their grip week by week. In vain did he try to beat back the besieging army or break through its lines. He made a desperate attack at Fort Steadman (March 25, 1865), with a heavy loss. At Five Forks, he was again defeated (April 1, 1865), with a loss of 5,000 prisoners. He saw the city was doomed, and telegraphed from Petersburg to Jefferson Davis: "My lines are broken in three places. Richmond must be evacuated this evening." Confederate officers, hastily gathering their records and papers, escaped southward under cover of the night.

Retreat, and Surrender of Lee at Appomattox, April 9, 1865. On the night of the 2nd of April, Lee abandoned Richmond and Petersburg and moved westward, hoping to join Johnston's army before complete disaster should overtake him. The Union troops entered the city the next morning, and soon were in pursuit of Lee's army, making frequent attacks upon the rear and flank. At Deatonville Ewell's division of 7,000 was cut off and captured. Lee's army, once the pride of the South, now presented a pitiable sight; half-starved and worn

out, they trudged along, but many, too weak to march, dropped by the way. Sheridan was sent ahead with the cavalry to cut off the retreat and hold the army in check. The infantry hastened to the rear of the cavalry, which was then moved to both flanks of the Confederates. When Lee saw that he was completely surrounded and helpless, he surrendered, April 9, 1865, at Appomattox Court House, seventy-five miles west of Richmond.

Grant's terms were most generous. Lee was allowed to keep his sword; officers their side-arms, and men their horses, which they would need, as Grant said, "to work on the farms for spring plowing." Twenty-five thousand rations were distributed to famishing men immediately after the surrender. Officers were required to sign a parole for the men, allowing them to return to their homes to resume the peaceful pursuits of life, and pledging them never again to take up arms against the United States.

The surrender of Lee brought a request to Sherman from Johnston for terms of surrender. April 26, 1865, while his army was at Greensboro, North Carolina, he turned over 36,000 prisoners to Sherman on the same terms which Grant had given Lee, seventeen days before.

Assassination of Lincoln. Soon after the nation began to rejoice over the surrender of Lee and the approach of peace, it was plunged into the depth of grief by the sudden assassination of President Lincoln. On Friday night, April 14th, exactly four years after the fall of Fort Sumter, the President, accompanied by his wife and two guests, while seeking relief from the trials of his office at Ford's Theatre, was shot by John Wilkes Booth,* an actor in sympathy with the South, though the South did not sympathize with his deed. The assassin leaped from the box in which Lincoln sat to the stage below, shouting "Sic semper tyrannis!" (Ever thus to tyrants.) Dashing to the rear of the building, though his leg was badly injured by the leap, he

* Booth belonged to a band of assassins who planned to kill the President and other officers of high standing. Secretary Seward, sick in bed, was attacked and stabbed near to death by Lewis Powell. Powell, Mrs. Mary E. Surratt, in whose house the plot was formed, and two other conspirators, were hanged.

mounted a horse and escaped. He was pursued, however, and shot in a barn in Maryland after refusing to surrender. The President was taken to a private house across the street from the theatre, where every care was given him; but early next morning, surrounded by his prostrated family and official friends, he died.

Lincoln blended a high moral sense with a strong intellect. His patience, kindness and magnanimity endeared him to the hearts of the people; his skill and tact in guiding the ship of state safely through the violent tempests of the Civil War mark him as a truly great man. In his death-chamber Edwin M. Stanton, the great Secretary of War, paid a tribute to the President, which expresses the sentiment of the American people: "Now he belongs to the ages. There lies the most perfect ruler of men the world has ever seen."

For America his name is linked with that of Washington: one, the "savior and founder"; the other, the "preserver and liberator."

The Return to Peace. The war was closed, slavery abolished, the nation saved, and the day of rejoicing at hand. The vast armies of the Union were to be brought to Washington to march in a last grand review before going to their homes to take up the peaceful pursuits of life. Vast crowds of people gathered in the Capital to witness the grand spectacle. The new President, members of Congress, and hundreds of distinguished citizens occupied seats of honor. For two days (May 23rd and 24th) the war-scarred veterans paraded the streets of Washington. No fear of saber or rattle of musketry disturbed them there. Beneath the starry flags, rent and torn by the conflict of battle, they made a last march from the dangers, hardships and cruelties of a soldier life to the blessed pursuits of private citizens.

No thronging multitudes rejoicing over the preservation of the Union and shouting praises for the heroes of the war, welcomed the return of the southern troops; but sad and crest-fallen they went to their homes, to make the best of their "lost cause."

By November, 1,800,000 Union soldiers, in response to the last roll-call, were mustered out of service.

THE GRAND ARMY OF THE REPUBLIC. The disbandonment of the Union army inspired Major B. F. Stephenson, of the Fourteenth Illinois Infantry, to form an organization of ex-Union soldiers known as the Grand Army of the Republic.

April 6, 1866, Major Stephenson organized the first post, at Decatur, Illinois, basing its membership upon an honorable service in the Army, Navy, or Marine Corps of the United States during the late Rebellion, and upon an honorable discharge therefrom, binding its members by the motto—"Fraternity, Charity, and Loyalty."

The organization of posts throughout Illinois followed rapidly, and July 12th, 1866, the Department of Illinois was organized with General John M. Palmer as Department Commander. Major Stephenson assumed the national organization and issued orders as Commander-in-Chief. November 20, 1866, a national organization was perfected at Indianapolis. Rules, regulations and a ritual were adopted. The second National Encampment was held in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, January 15, 1868, and General John A. Logan was elected Commander-in-Chief, and he reorganized the order. He issued an order appointing May 30, as Memorial Day, for the purpose of decorating the graves of ex-Union soldiers and sailors in memory of their patriotic services. This day is now a legal holiday in nearly all northern and western states. The Grand Army of the Republic had in 1868 about 1,500,000 members.

THE WOMAN'S RELIEF CORPS is an auxiliary society of the Grand Army of the Republic, and was organized in 1879 from the various societies of women working along patriotic and charitable lines. All loyal women of good moral character are eligible to membership. It has a membership of over 500,000. It also encourages patriotic education.

THE LADIES OF THE GRAND ARMY OF THE REPUBLIC was organized in 1881. Only the mothers, wives, daughters, sisters and female blood relations of all honorably discharged

ex-Union soldiers, sailors and marines, if loyal and of good moral character, are eligible to membership. The organization has 300,000 members, who are devoted to the promotion of patriotism and patriotic education through their local, State and National organizations.

THE SONS OF VETERANS, as their title implies, are composed exclusively of the sons of honorably discharged veterans of the Union army. It is subject and auxiliary to the Grand Army of the Republic.

The veterans of the Civil War are rapidly passing away, and soon "taps" will be sounded for the last survivor, leaving as a legacy the grandest nation on earth.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Tell a connected story of the movements of the Army of the Potomac, giving plans, battles, and results. Give a similar account of Sherman's campaigns, including the campaigns of Hood and Thomas in Tennessee. Name all the commanders of the Army of the Potomac. Name three of the most important battles of the war, and give reasons why they were important. Name eight Confederate generals, telling what they did. Name ten Union generals, telling of their service. What is meant by volunteering? Drafting? Was there any opposition to the war in the North? Tell of the death of Lincoln. What were the results of the war?

CHAPTER XXXII.

COST OF THE WAR AND FINANCES OF THE WAR.

THE COST OF THE WAR.

Loss of Life. The cost of the war in blood and treasure was enormous. Three hundred and sixty thousand Union soldiers were killed in battle or died of wounds or disease.* The death list of the Confederate army was probably as great; so the total loss of life, North and South, reached 700,000 men. In addition to this, there were hundreds of thousands who were crippled or disabled for life.

The suffering on the field of battle or from prison filth and disease is beyond the power of words to tell. The grief of dear ones at home for the loss of father, husband or brother, combined with the suffering of the prisoners and the wounded, and the privations in camp and on the march, cast a cloud of gloom throughout the land. Only the thoughtful and sympathetic of this generation can understand the trials and hardships of those who went through the Civil War, but none of us can really share in the grief endured.

Sanitary and Christian Commissions. To relieve the suffering and to aid the government in caring for soldiers, a body of noble men and women formed an organization known as the Sanitary Commission. By its agency several millions of dollars in money and many millions' worth of supplies were collected and used to care for the unfortunate soldier, his widow and orphan. The Commission furnished nurses, physicians, medicines, ambulances, and hospital cars. Its hospitals and

* Of this number, 67,000 were killed in battle; 43,000 died of wounds; 230,000 died of disease and other causes, of whom 30,000 died in southern prisons. There were 2,265 engagements, counting every form of conflict, and 330 battles in which the Union loss was over 100 men.

tents followed the armies on the march, and were found upon every battle-field; and its corps of patriotic workers gave aid and comfort to the sick, wounded and needy, and in a hundred different ways alleviated pain, suffering and distress.

The Christian Commission was organized to look after the spiritual as well as the physical welfare of the armies. Religious meetings were held; and Bibles, magazines and books were furnished, in addition to food, clothing, and nurses.

Where there was want, sickness and suffering in army life, the agents of the Sanitary and Christian Commissions, like good Samaritans, extended the hand of aid and comfort.

Destruction of Property. No correct estimate can be made of the value of the property destroyed during the war. It is certain, however, that the total was very great. Vast armies moved like destructive tornadoes over the states. Fields of ripened grain and growing crops were trodden under foot or eaten by hungry horses. Food and clothing were carried away. Horses, cattle and hogs were taken for the army; and mills, factories, foundries and railroads were destroyed. This form of the burden fell more heavily upon the South than upon the North, as the seat of the war was principally in southern states.

To the southern planter the loss was doubly heavy. His slaves were freed, his live-stock went to supply the armies, and the Confederate money received was worthless. The blockade ruined his markets and raised the prices of all the things he had to buy. If he lived to return to his plantation he found little but the soil and neglected premises. He had to start life anew and upon changed conditions. Counting the average price of a slave \$300, the total loss to the South in slaves alone was \$1,200,000,000.

COST IN MONEY. The expenses of the government the year before the war, ending July 1, 1861, were \$66,000,000. The first year of the war the expenses were \$469,000,000; the last year \$1,295,000,000. The average daily expenses of the last year amounted to \$3,000,000, which is more than the total cost of running the government a whole year when Washington became President. The total amount expended by the govern-

ment in the four years of the war was \$3,348,000,000,* which was more than the total expense from Washington's to Lincoln's administrations. Of this vast sum the government raised \$667,000,000 by customs and internal taxes, during the war. The balance of the money was raised by loans. This balance, which at the close of the war amounted to \$2,808,000,000, was the debt of the government. The interest on the public debt has amounted to millions, and the pensions granted to soldiers, sailors and their widows and orphans, represent a total greater than was the original cost of the war.

FINANCES OF THE WAR.

Raising Money. The enormous amount of money needed to carry on the war was derived from three sources :

1. Tariff Duties.
2. Internal Revenue.
3. Loans.

Tariff Duties. Morrill Tariff. An act called the Morrill Tariff was passed, 1861, increasing the duty on imported goods. These rates were increased several times during the war, and by this means \$300,000,000 was raised in the four years from 1861 to 1865.†

INTERNAL REVENUE.‡ A heavy tax was laid on every gallon of liquor distilled, and on manufactured tobacco. Every company, corporation and business was taxed. The butcher paid 30c. for every beef, 10c. for every hog, and 5c. for every sheep that he killed. Every trade, occupation and profession, except the ministry of the gospel, paid a revenue to the government. Indeed, almost everything a man owned, ate, drank, bought, sold or did, was taxed. In August, 1861, a tax of 3 per cent was

* To the South the cost was nearly \$2,000,000,000. As they were in rebellion against the government and lost, their loans were never paid, and no national pensions have been granted to those who served in the Confederate army; but some of the southern states have granted small pensions to survivors and those who enlisted in those states.

† \$305,360,451, exact.

‡ The internal revenue for 1862-63 was \$37,640,787; for 1863-64, \$109,741,134; for 1864-65, \$209,464,215; for 1865-66, \$309,266,000. After the war closed, commerce and all forms of business expanded, bringing in the enormous income of \$520,000,000 to the government in one year.

placed on all yearly incomes in excess of \$800. This was increased in 1862; and in 1865 a tax of 5 per cent was laid on annual incomes between \$600 and \$5,000, and 10 per cent on those in excess of \$5,000. The burden of taxation thus fell more heavily upon those who were best able to pay.

RAISING MONEY BY LOANS or on "the credit of the United States." As the income from the tariff and the internal revenues was not sufficient to meet its expenses, the government raised the balance by selling bonds and by issuing paper money called "United States notes."

BONDS.* The bonds were promises by the government to pay a stated sum of money to the holder of the bond at the end of a certain number of years. The purchaser received interest on his investment, and at the end of the specified time the government paid him the stated sum it had promised to pay in the bond. Over \$1,000,000,000 was raised during the war by the sale of bonds.

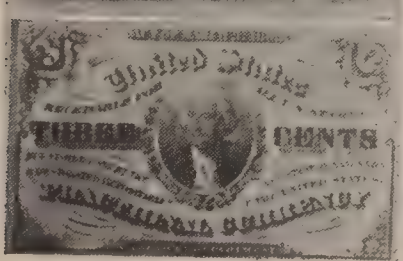
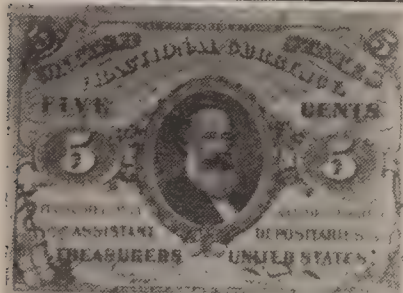
Paper Money.—**UNITED STATES NOTES.** The United States notes were of two kinds: those which bore interest and those which did not. The interest-bearing notes issued up to 1866 amounted to \$577,000,000. The noninterest-bearing notes were the "old demand notes," or "greenbacks," the "national bank notes," and the "fractional currency."

GREENBACKS. The "greenback" (so called from the color of its back) was a form of paper money, which was a legal tender in the payment of all debts, public or private, except duties on imports and interest on the public debt. The government authorized the issue of \$450,000,000 of these notes, but they depreciated very greatly during the war. At one time a greenback dollar passed for only thirty-five cents in gold, and these notes were never received at face value until the government (1875) agreed to redeem them in specie.

NATIONAL BANK NOTES. Congress, in 1863, at the request of Salmon P. Chase, Secretary of the Treasury, established the still existing system of National Banks. Not less than five

* Bonds were issued for ten, twenty, thirty, or forty years. Five-twenties were redeemable at the end of five years and fell due in twenty. Interest was paid on bonds at the rate of five, six, or seven per cent.

persons could form a banking company, with authority to purchase United States bonds. The bank, by depositing these



FRACTIONAL CURRENCY USED DURING AND AFTER THE CIVIL WAR (3, 5, 10, and 25-cent pieces). One-half the dimensions of the note.

bonds with the United States Treasurer, received from that officer notes especially engraved for that bank, in an amount not to exceed 90 per cent of the value of the bonds on deposit. These bonds, deposited with the government, make the bank notes good everywhere, even if the bank itself fails in business. This was a great improvement upon the old state bank system, for the failure of a state bank meant a total loss to those who held the bank's notes.

The passage of the National Bank Act had the twofold object of increasing the currency of the nation and of stimulating the sale of government bonds. A heavy tax on the paper money issued by the state banks led many of them to change from state to national banks, and compelled the others to cease issuing notes.

FRACTIONAL CURRENCY. On account of the insufficient amount of gold and silver, both banks and the government were compelled to suspend

specie payments during the war. Specie became more valuable than paper money, so gold and silver ceased to circulate. People hoarded it; that is, the gold coins, the silver dollars and 3, 5, 10, 25 and 50-cent pieces in silver were kept from circulation. This left the people without any change less than the paper dollar; so stamps and coppers were put into use. To remedy this condition, the Secretary of the Treasury, in March, 1863, began the issue of \$50,000,000 worth of 5, 10,

25, and 50-cent paper bills.* These notes are no longer issued. They are now a greater novelty than the silver change was during the war.

* They were sometimes called "shinplasters."

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Give an account of the cost of the war and the loss of life. What organizations were formed to relieve the suffering? How did the government raise money to meet the expenses of the war? Has all the money which was borrowed then been paid by the government? What is a national bank? How is it formed? Of what benefit is it? What was fractional currency? Which is more convenient and better for change—fractional currency, or fractional silver? Why?

CHAPTER XXXIII.

RECONSTRUCTION.

Reconstruction. A great and difficult task now rested upon Congress and the President: that of rebuilding and reconstructing the Union. For four years it had been rent asunder by the destructive forces of secession and a war—the fiercest and bloodiest in the annals of history. Many perplexing questions had to be settled. In what way should the seceded states be treated? Were they in or out of the Union? What should be done with the four million negroes set free? What punishment should be given to the Confederates for bringing on and maintaining the war? Who should be pardoned and who punished? What could be done to retrieve broken fortunes, repair almost irreparable injuries, bind the states together in amity, and develop a new national greatness?

Freedman's Bureau. Great crowds of slaves became camp-followers of the victorious Union armies in the South, and large numbers flocked to the towns and cities after the Emancipation Proclamation. These with many others were without means of support. The government organized a bureau in connection with the army to feed, clothe and care for the helpless negroes and other "refugees,"—the latter a class of poor whites driven from their homes because they favored the Union.

The need for this humane work was even greater at the close of the war than during its progress. Congress in 1865, therefore, established the Freedman's Bureau, the duty of which was to look after the interests of former slaves; feed, clothe and shelter the needy; establish schools for them; assign to them abandoned lands, and in general protect them from injustice and help them to care for themselves. President Johnson vetoed the bill, but Congress passed it over his veto.

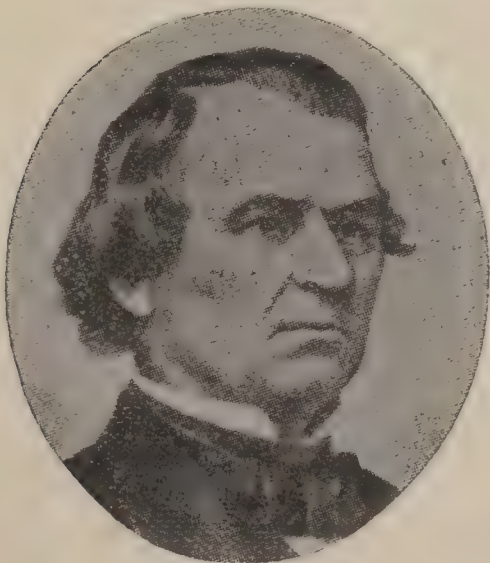
The President and Congress held different views on several

important issues, and this not only delayed the restoration of the southern states to the Union, but also led to a bitter quarrel between those representing these departments of Government.

Lincoln's Views of Reconstruction. After the great victories at Fort Donelson, Shiloh, Vicksburg and New Orleans, Lincoln hoped to restore the conquered states to their former relations to the Union. He promised pardon to all persons (except certain classes) who would lay down their arms, and swear to support the Constitution and abide by the Emancipation Proclamation. As soon as a number of persons in any state equal to one-tenth of those who voted at the election of 1860 should take the required oath and organize a state government without slavery, Lincoln would recognize such commonwealth as one of the states of the Union.

Arkansas, Tennessee and Louisiana complied with the plan; but Congress refused to seat their Senators and Representatives, and consequently no state was readmitted to the Union while the war lasted. Lincoln believed in extending the hand of welcome, without the spirit of resentment, to the defeated Confederates. At a cabinet meeting on the last afternoon of his life he said: "I hope there will be no persecution, no bloody work after the war is over. No one need expect me to

take any part in hanging or killing these men [Confederates], even the worst of them. Enough lives have been sacrificed. We must extinguish our resentment, if we expect harmony and union."



ANDREW JOHNSON.

Andrew Johnson. Andrew Johnson, like Lincoln, was born and reared in poverty and accustomed to the hardships of life. He belonged to the "poor whites." He taught himself to read and his wife taught him to write. Being

ambitious and energetic, he advanced very rapidly, and held almost every office from alderman to President. He was

United States senator from Tennessee when the war broke out, and the only senator from the South who did not resign to join the Confederacy. He remained loyal to the Union, though a Democratic senator from a slave state. In recognition of this loyalty and of that of the great mass of the northern Democrats, he was nominated for Vice-President on the Republican ticket with Lincoln. On the death of Lincoln he became President, April 15, 1865.

Johnson's Policy. Johnson had little sympathy for the slaves or for the wealthy planters. He looked upon the secession leaders as traitors, and at first wished them to be punished severely, but finally changed his mind and adopted Lincoln's view of reconstruction. As Congress was not in session, he began to carry out his policy, which required the Confederate States before they could be admitted to full rights to the Union :

1. To repeal their ordinances of secession.
2. To declare their war debt null and void and promise never to pay it.
3. To abolish slavery within their borders and ratify the Thirteenth Amendment.

Throughout the South the blockade was raised, duties were collected, mails carried, temporary governors appointed, and cases tried in courts in the name of the United States. Conventions were held which repealed the ordinances of secession and framed new constitutions. State officers were elected by those who had been in rebellion. The legislatures declared the war debt null and void (except in South Carolina), and ratified the Thirteenth Amendment abolishing slavery (except in Mississippi).

The Thirteenth Amendment.* The Thirteenth Amendment was an amendment to the Constitution which prohibited slavery in the United States or in any place subject to its rule. The Emancipation Proclamation had set the slaves free in those portions of the South which were in rebellion. It did

* It was sent to the states in February, 1865, and was formally proclaimed part of the Constitution December 28, 1865. It was ratified by the legislatures of sixteen free and eleven slave states, making the necessary three-fourths of the thirty-six states.

not apply to the slave states which had remained loyal to the Union—Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware. No mention was made of the possible right to buy other slaves, nor would it prevent any future Congress from granting states the right to hold slaves. In order that slavery should be abolished forever in all states, this amendment was made a part of the Constitution, 1865.

Legislation Against Freedmen. The people of the South believed the negroes, turned from slavery to freedom, would become idle, insolent, and dangerous. Without property, education, the habit of self-control or the means of subsistence, they would be a menace to the peace and rights of the whites. The legislatures accordingly began to pass laws, known as the "Black Codes," intended to regulate and control the freedmen, but which seemed to the North to bring them back to a state of slavery. Colored orphans and minors without visible means of support were to be hired out until they became of age. All colored persons were to be employed under written contract. Any found without employment were declared vagrants, subject to arrest and fine. If unable to pay his fine, the judge could sentence him to work for a white man (preferably the former master), who was given the right to whip his servant. These laws aroused bitter opposition in the North, and it was largely on account of them that Congress refused to admit southern congressmen until the rights of the freedmen were fully protected.

Congressional Plan. The Republicans in general did not approve the President's policy for restoring the seceded states to the Union, and when Congress met in December, 1865, it refused to sanction his actions in that regard. Before it would admit southern senators and representatives, Congress, as its plan of reconstruction, required the Confederate States—

1. To repeal the ordinances of secession.
2. To declare the Confederate war debt null and void.
3. To abolish slavery and ratify the Thirteenth Amendment.
4. To grant civil rights to the negro and ratify the Fourteenth Amendment.

The Civil Rights Bill and the Fourteenth Amendment.

The Civil Rights* Act guaranteed civil rights to all persons born in the United States, without regard to race or color. This gave the same rights to the negro as to the white. But a law enacted by one Congress may be repealed by another, and in order that these rights should never be withdrawn they were made a part of the Constitution, as the Fourteenth Amendment.

In addition to granting civil rights to all persons, the Fourteenth Amendment provided for a reduction of the representation in Congress of any state which refused to let the negro vote. Section three disqualified leading men in the South, who had taken part in the rebellion, from voting and holding office until these privileges should be restored to them by a two-thirds vote of Congress; and section four declared the war debt of the Confederate States illegal and void and that of the United States legal and valid.

The Breach Widens between Congress and Johnson.

The President, claiming that he had the right to restore the states to the Union, vigorously opposed the policy of Congress. Before the elections in the fall of 1866, he toured the country, speaking in support of his views and denouncing the members of Congress in most bitter and violent terms. He, however, injured himself more than he did his opponents, for in the election a large number of Republicans friendly to the plans of Congress were successful.

Reconstruction Measures Carried by Military Rule.

After giving the colored man the right to vote in the District of Columbia and the territories, Congress passed the Reconstruction Act (March 2, 1867), which divided the ten southern states still out of the Union into five military districts. An army officer with troops at his command was placed over each district, with absolute power to rule and carry out the reconstruction measures of Congress.† The state governments recognized

* Civil rights are rights granted by the government for the protection of life, liberty and property. Political rights refer to the rights of voting and office-holding. Women and children have the former but not the latter, except that in a few states political rights have been granted to women.

† About 20,000 troops were distributed at 134 posts in the South. Among other duties they had charge of registering voters and supervising elections. The Reconstruction Act

by Johnson were set aside and new ones provided for. Negroes were allowed to take part both in forming the new constitutions and in conducting the government, while many of their former masters were denied these rights by the third section of the Fourteenth Amendment. In each state delegates were elected to a convention to form a new constitution, which should grant freedmen the right to vote. If the constitution proved acceptable, and the legislature met the requirements of Congress, the states would then be allowed to send senators and representatives to Congress.

Six states—North Carolina, South Carolina, Florida, Louisiana, Alabama, and Arkansas—having met these requirements, were restored to the Union, June, 1868.

The Tenure of Office Act, 1867.* On the same day that Congress passed the Reconstruction Act (March 2, 1867), it passed the Tenure of Office Act, which said that the President should not, without the consent of the Senate, remove any office-holder whose appointment had to be ratified by the Senate.† This was done to prevent the President from removing important officials favorable to the congressional policy of reconstruction, for the purpose of appointing others in sympathy with his views. Johnson denied the right of Congress to make such a law, and soon disobeyed it. During the recess of Congress he suspended Stanton, Secretary of War, and appointed General Grant to the place. The Senate disapproved this change, and reinstated Stanton, but Johnson defied the Senate by appointing General Lorenzo Thomas as Secretary of War, and ordered him to seize the office by force.

The wisdom and even the constitutionality of this act has always been questioned, and it was repealed in 1887.

Impeachment of President Johnson. For violating the

of March 2, 1867, was strengthened by a second act, March 23, 1867, and by a third, July 19, 1867.

* The Tenure of Office Act permitted the President to suspend an officer during the recess of Congress, but such suspension was to be reported to the Senate at its next meeting for final action.

† There were two classes of officers: the more important, which were appointed by the President, had to be ratified by the Senate, but the minor positions were filled by the President without the consent of the Senate.

Tenure of Office Act and other alleged offenses, the House of Representatives then brought articles of impeachment against the President, charging him with "high crimes and misdemeanors." In his trial before the Senate able lawyers represented both sides, and after a hearing lasting two months, thirty-five senators voted "guilty" and nineteen "not guilty."* This was one less than the two-thirds necessary to convict. Thus by the narrow margin of one vote was the President saved the dishonor of removal from office.

Fifteenth Amendment (1870). The Fifteenth Amendment declared that the right to vote shall not be denied by any state "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." Virginia, Georgia, Mississippi and Texas, the states not yet readmitted, were required to vote for the Fifteenth Amendment before they were restored to the Union. The Thirteenth Amendment made the negro a freedman, the Fourteenth made him a citizen, and the Fifteenth opened a way to make him a voter.

The French in Mexico, 1861-1867. In 1861, England, France and Spain jointly sent an armed force to Mexico to seize and hold her custom-houses until debts due them were paid. England and Spain soon withdrew their troops, but Napoleon III., Emperor of France, used this foothold to establish French power in Mexico. He started a war with Mexico, defeated the troops of the Republic, and again set up a Mexican Empire (1862), with Maximilian, a brother of the Emperor of Austria, as ruler. The United States informed the French that this was a violation of the Monroe Doctrine. Napoleon, however, believing that the Civil War would disrupt the Union and that the Nation could not enforce its demands, paid no heed to these protests.

When the war was over the United States took up the question and sent General Sheridan to the Mexican frontier with a large army. Napoleon then withdrew the French troops (1867), the empire was overthrown, and Maximilian was taken prisoner by the Mexicans, court-martialed, and shot.

* More than two-thirds of the Senators were Republicans, but seven of them voted with the Democrats for acquittal. No other President has been impeached.

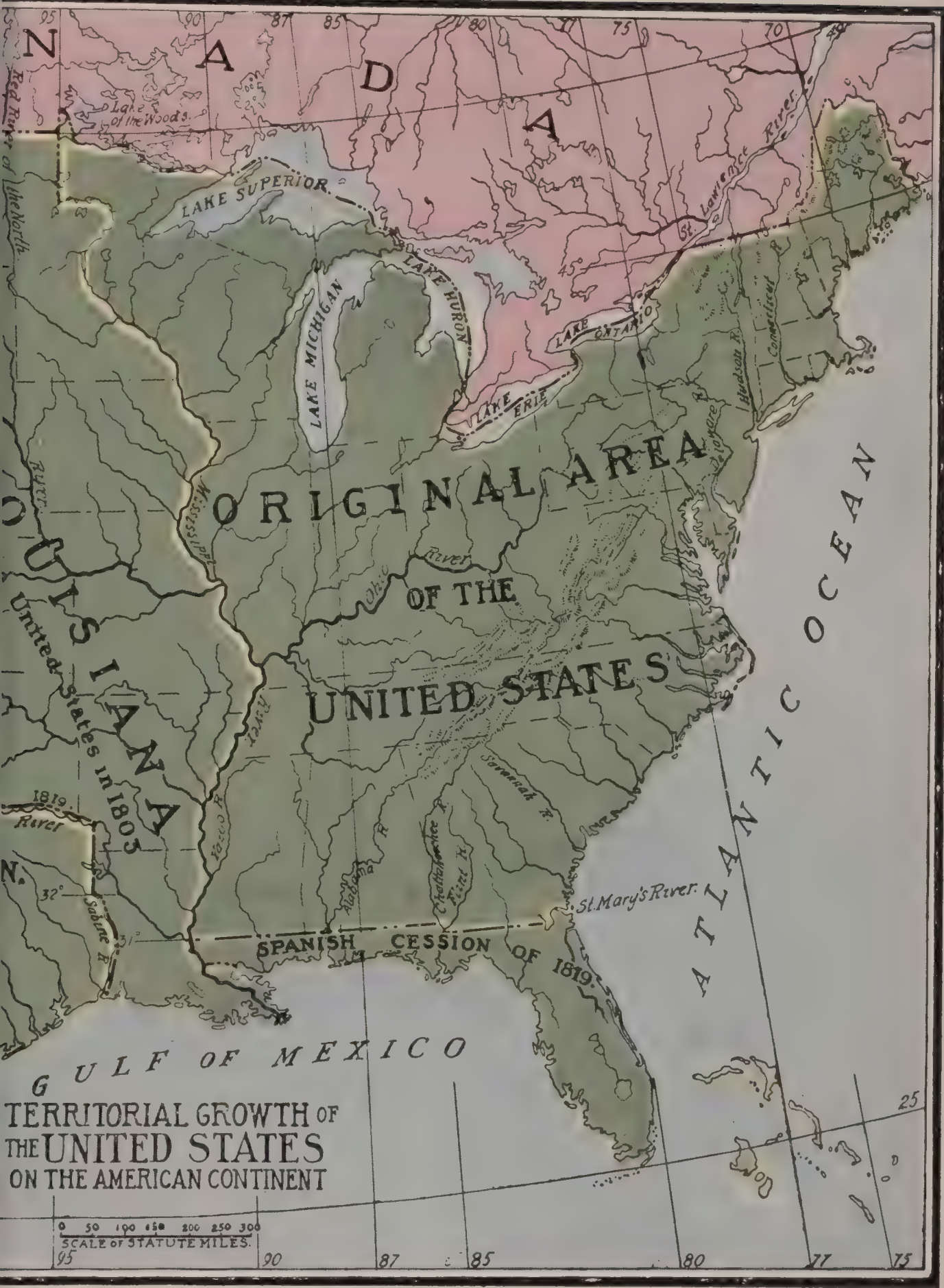
Purchase of Alaska, 1867. The United States purchased Alaska from Russia in 1867 for \$7,200,000. The territory comprises an area of 577,000 square miles, which is about two-thirds as large as all the states east of the Mississippi river. It lies chiefly within the region of perpetual ice and snow, but the ocean-currents moderate the climate of the coast so as to make it habitable and in parts profitably tillable. Many at the time thought that Secretary Seward had made a bad bargain. They ridiculed the idea of paying \$7,200,000 for what they humorously called a "refrigerator" for the United States. But in a single year the value of the furs, fish, timber and gold taken from Alaska is many times as great as the total cost of the territory,* and its known coal-fields are among the richest in the world.

Presidential Election, 1868. The main issue between the two parties in the campaign of 1868 were the reconstruction policy of Congress and the question of the payment of the United States bonds in gold.

The Democrats nominated Horatio Seymour and Francis P. Blair, on a platform demanding full pardon for all engaged in the rebellion; insisting that where payment in gold had not been promised, the government pay its bonds in greenbacks; and opposing all land grants to railroads and corporations. The Republicans nominated Ulysses S. Grant and Schuyler Colfax on a platform encouraging foreign immigration, favoring the payment of the national debt in accordance with the letter and spirit of the laws under which it was contracted, and the removal of the political restrictions in the South "in the same measure as the spirit of disloyalty dies out." Grant was elected President and Colfax Vice-President, each receiving 214 electoral votes, and Seymour received 80.

* The value of the gold shipped from Alaska to the United States in 1909 was \$17,782,493; the value of the fish in 1908 was \$11,536,926.





SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What questions confronted Congress at the close of the war? What was the Freedmen's Bureau? What were Lincoln's views of reconstruction? What three states early complied with Lincoln's plan? Did Congress accept their representatives? What was Johnson's policy? What three things were to be required of the seceded States in order to get back into the Union? What was the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution? Tell of the legislation in the southern states against the negro? What was the Congressional plan of reconstruction? What four things did Congress require of the southern states? What was the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution? When were the states reconstructed? What was the Tenure of Office Act? Tell of the impeachment of President Johnson. What was the Fifteenth Amendment? Where was the Monroe Doctrine violated during the Civil War? Tell of the purchase of Alaska.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

FROM GRANT TO GARFIELD.

ADMINISTRATION OF ULYSSES S. GRANT.

“Carpet-Bag” Rule in the South. Many vexing problems grew out of the changed political conditions in the South.



GEN. ULYSSES S. GRANT.

Those who had ruled before the war were now without power in state affairs, and a new class, composed largely of northern white men and southern negroes, took control.* Freedmen who could neither read nor write were elected to the legislature. Some of the men who came from the North were sincere and honest, but many were political tricksters of the worst sort. They were called “carpet-baggers,” because all they brought from the

North was carried, it was said, in a carpet-bag or valise. By making the negroes believe that the southerners would pass laws, again making slaves of them, they won their votes; and when once elected to office they ran affairs for the benefit of themselves instead of in the interests of the people. Because of the domination by designing northerners and ignorant negroes, the period was one of gross extravagance and corruption. Large sums of money were appropriated for the construction of public buildings, railroads, and other public works, and much of this money went into the pockets of legislators, contractors and politicians as “graft.” In South Caro-

* Those who came from the North were composed chiefly of two classes—those who were appointed to positions by the President and those who went South with the hope of profiting by the misfortunes of the southerners.

lina the legislature spent \$200,000 for furniture; while cigars, watermelons and liquors were furnished at the expense of the state. In Alabama the debt was increased \$17,000,000 in four years. Taxes imposed by such wasteful expenditures became so burdensome that the people could not pay them. In Mississippi alone 6,000,000 acres of land were sold at forced tax sales.

The Kuklux Klan. To protect themselves from the evils of negro and "carpet-bag" rule, the whites formed secret societies, the most noted of which was the Kuklux Klan. The members began a campaign to prevent the negroes from voting and to make life for the "carpet-baggers" miserable. In the dead of night white-robed horsemen, making hideous noises, would appear at negro cabins, warning their occupants not to take any part in politics. Like ghosts they seemed to come from the land of spirits to avenge the death of Confederates and fill the freedmen with fear and dread. If any of the negroes or their white sympathizers became too bold and did not heed the warnings, they were whipped, driven away, or murdered. As the Kuklux Klan passed into the hands of the rougher and more lawless members, its acts became more violent. Even agents of the Freedman's Bureau, teachers of freedmen, and judges of courts, not in sympathy with the lawlessness, suffered the penalty of death during this reign of terror.

The "Force" Bills. The violent action of the Kuklux Klan led Congress to pass "Force" Bills (1870-1871) to protect the rights of the colored people in the South. Heavy fines and imprisonment were provided for those who attempted to keep persons from voting. To prevent the dreaded night raids, a punishment of not to exceed ten years' imprisonment and a fine of not more than \$10,000 was placed upon every person found guilty of going in disguise on the public highways, or on another's premises with the intent to injure, intimidate, or to prevent him from enjoying the rights of a citizen. All such cases were to be brought to trial before the Federal courts. After many persons had been sent to jail, the power and violence of the Kuklux Klan were finally brought to an end, but the

southern whites by one means or another gradually gained control, thus ending domination by the colored man.

Great Fires. A very destructive fire broke out in Chicago on the evening of October 8, 1871, burned over an area of two hundred acres, and destroyed \$200,000,000 worth of property. Two hundred lives were lost and 100,000 persons made homeless. No such terrible conflagration had been seen since the burning of Moscow, the capital of Russia, when the Russians set fire to the city to keep it from falling into the hands of Napoleon.

In 1872 the city of Boston suffered a loss of \$77,000,000 by a destructive fire.

The Washington Treaty, 1871. During President Grant's first term three points of difference threatened the peaceful relations between the United States and Great Britain: The northwest water boundary; the Atlantic fisheries question; and the claims for damages by the United States for injury to American trade and commerce, during the Civil War, by the *Alabama* and other Confederate vessels built in England.

A way was found for the peaceful solution of all these disputes by five British and five American commissioners, who met at Washington, D. C., and drafted what is known as the Treaty of Washington, 1871. This treaty, which was ratified by both countries, provided that all the disputes should be settled by arbitration, and prescribed the manner in which each of the difficulties should be adjusted.

1. The Northwest Water-boundary Question was referred to the Emperor of Germany.

2. The Fisheries Question was referred to three commissioners, appointed, one by the President of the United States, one by the Queen of England, and a third by the Austrian Minister to England.

3. The Alabama Claims were referred to five arbitrators, one from each of five countries: the United States, Great Britain, Brazil, Italy, and Switzerland.

THE NORTHWEST BOUNDARY. The boundary line between Vancouver Island and the United States was not well defined by

the Oregon Boundary Treaty of 1846. The British claimed that Rosario Strait was the boundary, while the Americans claimed that the boundary was Haro Strait. The German Emperor (1872) rendered a decision favorable to the United States, which gave us a group of small islands, 170 square miles in area, of which the most important is San Juan.

THE ALABAMA CLAIMS OR GENEVA AWARD. The five commissioners to whom were referred the claims against Great Britain for damage to American commerce during the war, met at Geneva, Switzerland. After hearing arguments from both nations, they decided (1872) that Great Britain did not use "due diligence" as a neutral nation to prevent the fitting out of war-vessels for Confederate service. By a vote of four to one, the board awarded the sum of \$15,500,000 to the United States. This was paid by Great Britain the next year.

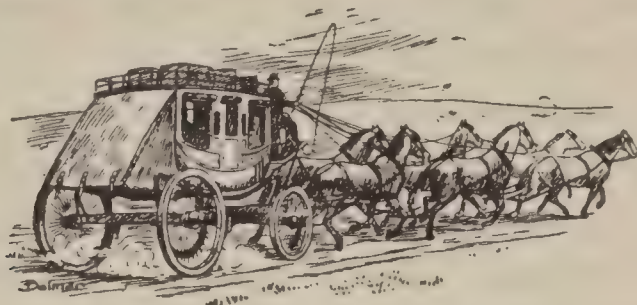
THE FISHERIES QUESTION. The Fisheries Question was settled in 1877. The United States was required to pay Great Britain \$5,500,000 for the right to take and dry fish off the Canadian coast, subject to certain restrictions.

SETTLEMENT OF THE WEST.

Discovery of Gold and Silver. We have already learned what a marvelous effect the discovery of gold had upon the rapid settlement of California, and how eastern Kansas grew apace by the insurging tide of anti-slavery and pro-slavery men. Between these two regions was a tract of wild and unsettled land, nearly 2,000 miles in width. The discovery of gold near Pike's Peak (1858) in what was then western Kansas, and the discovery of silver in western Utah (now Nevada), again started a stream of emigrants across prairie and mountain. In a short time, Virginia City, Nevada, became a thriving town in the heart of the richest silver district in the country. The territory of Nevada was formed in 1861, and three years later it was admitted as a state.

Vast crowds of fortune-seekers flocked to the Pike's Peak region in quest of gold, and "Pike's Peak or Bust" became the favorite motto of emigrant trains. Denver, the present metrop-

olis of the mountains, was founded in 1858; within a year it was a thriving town, and a little later was made the capital of Colorado, which was organized as a territory in 1861 and admitted as a state in 1876.



THE CONCORD STAGE-COACH.

The stage-coach was the chief means of travel in the West before the coming of the railroad. Ordinary baggage of passengers was carried on the roof, with a railing for protection. Mail-sacks, express packages and other baggage needing protection were carried on a platform, suspended on the back by chains or straps, and sheltered by leather or oiled canvas covering. This receptacle was called a "boot."

The coach was drawn by either four or six horses, in relays, and maintained a speed of ten miles an hour.

Pony Express and Overland Stage. By 1860 there were three "way stations" dotting the mountain region between Kansas and California: one at Denver, a second at Salt Lake, and another at Virginia City. There was urgent demand that these places be connected with the East by mail and express route. To supply this need, Russell, Majors & Waddell opened



THE PONY EXPRESS.

a stage-coach route in 1860 over the prairie from Leavenworth to Denver, and the same year began to carry mail from St. Joseph, Missouri, to San Francisco by what was called the "Pony Express." Stations supplied with spirited ponies were established twenty-five miles

apart along the route. The mail carrier, setting out from St. Joseph, would speedily gallop to the first station, mount a fresh horse and dash away. A fresh rider took the mail at each third station. Day and night, in all kinds of weather, these

hardy horsemen galloped across prairie, desert and mountain, delivering mail over a distance of 2,000 miles. The journey was made in about ten days.

The Pony Express and Overland Stage are splendid examples of the spirit, grit and energy of the pioneers in supplying needs, and in opening the way for the great trans-continental railways, which were soon to follow:

The Union Pacific Railroad. As early as 1860 both political parties favored government aid for building a railroad from the Missouri river to the Pacific. In 1862 Congress began the policy of granting help on a large scale to railroad companies. They voted: 1. To give a right-of-way from Omaha to San Francisco. 2. To grant, free of charge, every alternate section of land extending over a strip ten miles wide on each side of the railroad, and amounting to about 20,000 square miles, or almost half the area of the state of Pennsylvania. 3. To lend \$50,000,000 in money, and take as security a second mortgage on the railroad property.

The Union Pacific was begun at Omaha and built westward; the Central Pacific was begun at Sacramento and extended eastward. The two gangs of workmen met near Ogden, Utah, where, on May 10, 1869, the two lines were united, when with silver hammers the last spikes, two of silver and two of gold, were driven into the last tie.

The Homestead Act, 1862. One of the greatest factors in the rapid settlement of the West with thrifty, hardy people was the passage of the Homestead Law. By this act the government agreed to give 160 acres of land to any person over twenty-one years of age who would live on and cultivate the land for five years. Thousands of settlers flocked from the older states to the unoccupied lands of the new states and territories. Ship lines were busy carrying emigrants from Europe to share in the generous policy of the government. From 1863 to 1870, 103,000 grants, amounting to a total of 12,000,000 acres, were given to home-seekers. Under the influence of this act and the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad, Nebraska grew apace in wealth and population, and became a state in 1867. Utah,

although in the mountain district, also shared in these benefits, but Congress refused to admit the territory as a state until it made provision for abolishing polygamy, which had been sanctioned by the Mormon Church. After these requirements were complied with, Utah was admitted as a state, in 1896.

The Northern Pacific and New States. After the completion of the Union Pacific Railroad, work was begun on the Northern Pacific, which was to extend from Duluth, Minnesota, to Puget Sound. About 50,000,000 acres of land along the proposed route were granted by Congress to the company, and the work of construction was completed in 1883. The territories through which the road and its branches passed had a rapid growth, and within a decade after its completion six new states were admitted to the Union: North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington, in 1889; and Idaho and Wyoming in 1890.

The discovery of gold in the Black Hills led many fortune-seekers into the Northwest and hastened the development of that section. Washington had been organized as a territory as early as 1853, but grew slowly until the railroad furnished an easier route of travel to the Pacific slope. Then in a few years its population leaped from a hundred thousand to a million.

The Santa Fe and the Southwest. About the same time that the Northern Pacific opened up the Northwest, the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe was completed through Kansas, Colorado, New Mexico and Arizona to Los Angeles, California, in the Southwest. These pioneer roads and others that followed, the discovery of the precious metals, together with the Homestead law, brought crowds of people to the then wild and unsettled portions of the country. A large part of the "American Desert" was made to bud and blossom into undreamed-of beauty and richness; a barren waste was changed to a land of plenty, supporting millions of happy and prosperous people.

Oklahoma. Indian Territory (now Oklahoma) was organized as a territory, 1834, and set apart as a home for Indians, to which various tribes from east of the Mississippi had been taken. The government, however, purchased the western part

of the territory from the Indians in 1889, organized it as the Territory of Oklahoma, and opened it to white settlers. No one was allowed to enter until noon of April 22, 1889. For several days previous to that date its borders were thronged with thousands of persons awaiting the signal that would open the coveted lands to settlers. When the bugle sounded at the appointed hour, men and women in wagons, on horses, on trains and on foot, made a wild rush to select free land and stake out their claims. The territory had a remarkably rapid growth in wealth and population.

In 1907 Oklahoma and Indian Territory were united and admitted to the Union as the state of Oklahoma, with over a million people—a population greater than that of any other state at the time of its admission. Oklahoma City, with a population in 1910 of 65,000, had grown in two decades from a houseless prairie to be the capital and metropolis of a great state.

The Campaign of 1872. The campaign of 1872 was one of intense excitement. The Republican and Democratic parties each split into two wings, and in addition two new parties appeared in the race for the presidency.

The Liberal Republican party demanded “universal amnesty” for the South, favored civil-service reform, and no more railroad grants. They nominated for President Horace Greeley, the brilliant but eccentric founder and editor of the *New York Tribune*, and for Vice-President, B. Gratz Brown.

The Republican party nominated Grant and Henry Wilson, indorsed the record of the party, favored civil service, and opposed further land grants.

The Democrats, believing that they could not defeat Grant for a second term by making a separate nomination, indorsed the nomination of Greeley. This displeased some of the party, who called another convention and nominated other candidates, who declined the honor.

THE LABOR PARTY. The laboring men had for several years been holding meetings to consider plans to protect their interests. In addition to favoring a law to exclude the Chinese, who after the discovery of gold had flooded California with cheap

labor, they in other ways sought protection for the working class. They finally called a convention and nominated David Davis for President; but he, too, declined to run.

THE PROHIBITION PARTY. In 1872 the prohibitionists held a national convention and nominated James Black for President and Rev. John Russell for Vice-President. This party has had candidates at every presidential election since that time. The vote cast for the candidates has never been very large, however, even in states where a majority of the people favor the temperance cause; for most temperance people believe they can fight the evils of the liquor traffic better through the old parties in local and state campaigns.

Coinage Act of 1873.* A new coinage act, sometimes called the act "demonetizing silver," was passed in 1873. Only fractional silver (half-dollars, quarters, and dimes) was to be coined under this act, and this was made a legal tender only in sums of five dollars or less. The coinage of the silver dollar was discontinued, but in four years following the passage of the act over 55,000,000 dollars' worth of fractional silver was coined. This sum is more than twice the total amount of all silver coined in any four years prior to 1873.

Period of Commercial Prosperity. Following the war there was great activity in all lines of industry. In four years, 1869 to 1873, 25,000 miles of railroad were built—an amount only 5,000 less than the total number of miles built before 1860. This called for a heavy investment in the iron industry, and gave employment to a large number of men. Commerce expanded by leaps and bounds, exports in 1872 amounting to over \$600,000,000; imports to over \$500,000,000. Under the Homestead Act, vast areas were taken up by settlers and grain production increased enormously. Labor was plentiful, wages high, and all prices inflated. Opportunities for investment were

* The government coined a five-cent silver piece from 1792 to 1873, and a three-cent silver piece from 1851 to 1873. Much of the time before 1872 the silver bullion needed to make a silver dollar was worth more than a dollar. Those who held the silver bullion sold it for commercial purposes instead of having it coined into money. Only 8,000,000 silver dollars were coined from 1792 to 1873. The law of 1873 also provided for the coinage of the "trade dollar," and 30,000,000 of these were coined in four years, when its coinage was discontinued.

many and most flattering. People not only invested their savings, but borrowed freely to buy lands, stocks and bonds. This great prosperity and excessive speculation ended, as is generally the case, in a commercial crash, 1873.

Panic of 1873. The panic of 1873 began when the rich banking firm of Jay Cooke & Co., of Philadelphia, closed its doors. People, fearing that other banks would fail, made "runs" on them. The withdrawal of deposits compelled the banks to call in their loans. As borrowers in many instances could not pay the principal or even the interest, banks were compelled to close their doors. Tens of thousands of men were thrown out of work, and many more found employment on short time or at reduced wages. Industries were paralyzed, and the nation was plunged suddenly from prosperity and plenty into failure and want.*

Several things combined to bring on the panic. The new railroads in a sparsely settled country were not profitable. Those who purchased bonds received little or no income from them, and bankers who held bonds could not sell them. Railroad-building came to a standstill, iron foundries and other industries closed, and the earning capacity of labor and capital was greatly reduced. The new wheat-fields in the West by over-production brought down the price of grain, so speculators lost heavily. Money became scarce because large amounts left the country to pay interest on the foreign debt and to pay for the goods which were imported.

Measures to Relieve the Panic. The people looked to Congress to relieve the distress caused by the panic. Some believed there should be more paper money, while others believed that all paper money should be made redeemable in coin. In 1874 Congress enacted a measure called the Inflation Bill, requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to issue \$44,000,000 more in greenbacks. But a paper dollar was not then worth a dollar in gold, and as Grant believed that an increase of paper money would make it still less valuable as compared with gold, he vetoed the bill.

* Five thousand business firms failed in 1873, and as many more in 1874.

SPECIE RESUMPTION, 1875. With the hope of making paper money of equal purchasing power with gold, Congress passed the Specie Resumption Act, 1875, which required the Secretary of the Treasury, on and after January 1, 1879, to redeem in coin* all greenbacks or other paper money presented for redemption.

The Secretary of the Treasury was authorized to sell bonds until he had a sufficient supply of gold on hand to exchange for paper money. He collected \$140,000,000, but when the time came to redeem the notes, paper money was worth as much as gold, and was so satisfactory to the people that very little was sent in for redemption.

The small paper bills, issued during the war for change, were made redeemable at the postoffices and subtreasuries, in the 50-cent, 25-cent and 10-cent silver pieces.

Custer's Defeat. The settlement of the West, like that of the East, was attended by Indian wars and massacres. The most disastrous of these was the complete defeat of General George Custer on the Little Big Horn river, in Montana. The discovery of gold in the Black Hills of Dakota brought settlers and gold-seekers into conflict with the fierce and powerful Sioux Indians. The government attempted to remove the Indians to a new reservation, but the Indians, under their able chief "Sitting Bull," refused to go, and prepared to resist the troops sent against them. General Custer's command of about 200 cavalry, in making an attack upon their camp, was surrounded by more than 2,000 Indians, and every man in the command was killed (1876). More troops were hurried to the scene, and the Indians were finally defeated in several battles, the survivors escaping to Canada.

Corruption in Office. Corruption in office has been one of the evils in our system of government. Some men are willing to risk reputation, honor and liberty for the sake of riches dishonestly acquired.

"BOSS TWEED," commissioner of public works, in New York

* While coin means either gold or silver, all Secretaries of the Treasury have redeemed the paper money with gold.

City, organized a "ring" of office-holders which managed to rob the city of many millions of dollars. The "ring" was finally broken up, and Tweed was sent to the penitentiary, where, after judgment had been rendered against him for the recovery of over \$6,000,000 and interest, he died.

THE WHISKY RING, AND OTHER FRAUDS. A number of revenue collectors combined with whisky distillers to cheat the government by keeping part of the revenue tax. The guilty parties were found out and the "ring" leaders sent to jail. The Secretary of War was impeached for requiring bribes of persons for appointments and for promotions in office. He resigned, and thus escaped conviction, which would have disqualified him "to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States." (See Const., Sec. 3, Art. I.)

CREDIT MOBILIER was the name of a stock company which built the Union Pacific Railroad. By letting contracts to its own members at exorbitant prices, it made enormous profits, and rapidly used up the money received from the government and from the sale of bonds. This company had secretly placed 30,000 shares (worth about \$9,000,000) among certain Congressmen, hoping in this way to induce Congress to vote more money and land to the railroad company. This was nothing more nor less than bribery, and after an investigation, two representatives were censured and one senator barely escaped expulsion.

Centennial, 1876. Following the "Crystal Palace" exhibition of 1853, and far outstripping it in magnitude and beneficial results, was the Philadelphia Exposition of 1876, commemorating the Declaration of Independence. It was a great display of arts, inventions, industries and products, not only by the United States but by most of the civilized nations of the earth. Nearly 10,000,000 persons visited the great show from May 10th to November 10th, and carried with them to their homes many ideas which aided in the rapid development of our country.

Presidential Campaign, 1876. Corruption in office, military rule in the South, and the money question, were the leading issues in the campaign of 1876.

The Republicans nominated Rutherford B. Hayes and William A. Wheeler, the Democrats Samuel J. Tilden and Thomas A. Hendricks, and the Prohibitionists Green C. Smith and G. T. Stewart. A new party, called the Greenback Party, appeared, and nominated Peter Cooper, the great philanthropist, for President. It opposed the Specie Payment Act, and wished the government to issue paper money bearing a low rate of interest.

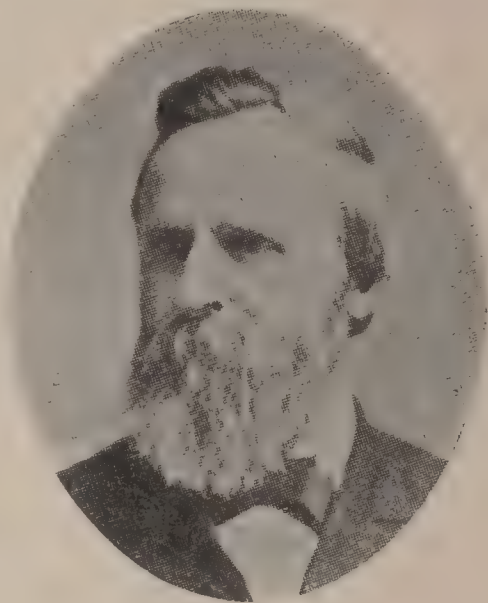
After a bitter contest, the campaign ended in doubt as to who was elected, both Democrats and Republicans claiming victory. The electoral votes from South Carolina, Florida, Louisiana, and one from Oregon, were in dispute. Should every electoral vote in these states be counted for the Republicans, Hayes would have 185 votes to Tilden's 184, but any other decision meant Democratic victory.* The Constitution provides that the "President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted." But the Senate, which was Republican, wished to count all votes for Hayes, and the House, which was Democratic, wished to count the votes for Tilden. Not being able to agree, they referred the question to a commission of fifteen men,—five senators and five representatives, and five judges of the Supreme Court.

Electoral Commission.* Eight of the commissioners were Republicans and seven were Democrats. The Republicans voted together in favor of counting all the disputed votes for Hayes, and the Democrats voted solidly in opposition. By a vote of eight to seven, therefore, every vote in question was cast for Hayes, which gave him a majority of one. Had there been a majority of Democrats on the commission, Tilden would, no doubt, have been declared the President.

* The commissioners were selected as follows: Five senators by the Senate (three Republicans and two Democrats); five representatives by the House (three Democrats and two Republicans); five justices of the Supreme Court (two Democrats and two Republicans), and the fifth by these four.

ADMINISTRATION OF RUTHERFORD B. HAYES, 1877-1881.

Policy of Hayes. The circumstances under which Hayes became President were very trying. The Democrats claimed that they had been cheated out of the office of President, and threatened to make serious trouble for him, while many of the Republican party leaders were not in sympathy with some of Hayes's reform measures. But he was honest, courageous, and, believing that "he who serves his country best serves his party best," he set to his task of giving a clean and praiseworthy administration.



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

South Carolina and Louisiana, two of the states whose electoral vote had been contested and finally counted for Hayes, also had two rival state Governments,—one Republican and the other Democratic. The Federal troops helped to uphold the former, while a majority of the white people supported the latter. In settlement of these difficulties, Hayes conferred with the leading southern men, and obtained promises from them to uphold national laws in the South and to aid in a peaceful settlement of the state troubles. Accordingly he withdrew the Federal troops from these states. As a result, carpet-bag rule speedily disappeared, and the South became solidly Democratic. His southern policy as well as his efforts to promote civil-service reform led many Republicans to bitterly oppose him.

Civil-Service Reform. From the administration of Jackson to that of Hayes the "Spoils System" of filling offices had been in use. Men were appointed to fill federal positions because they were political partisans, rather than because of special fitness for the positions. The selection was usually made by congressmen, who were thus able to build up a political machine to perpetuate themselves and their party in office.

By this plan many incompetent and dishonest men found official employment. When a party was defeated all office-holders were turned out and members of the victorious party appointed to fill the places made vacant. The evils of this system led to the enactment of a

CIVIL-SERVICE LAW, IN 1871. Under this law a commission was appointed to examine applicants and to select those who showed special fitness and qualification. These were to hold their positions so long as they gave good service. Although both parties had twice declared for civil service in their platforms, Congress, influenced by politicians and lamenting the loss of federal patronage, refused in 1875 to vote any more money to carry on the reform; but President Hayes made a noble effort to appoint men of merit to positions, and to put into operation the civil-service reform plan wherever possible.

The Pendleton Civil-Service Act. Little progress could be made, however, until Congress passed the Pendleton Civil-Service Act in 1883. Under it only those persons who have passed the required examination are eligible for appointment, and appointments must be made from those who pass the best examination. Soon after the passage of this act, 14,000 federal employés were placed under civil service. This number has been greatly increased in every administration since, but notably so in those of Cleveland and of Roosevelt. In 1910 there were over 355,000 persons in the employ of the government under the civil-service law.

Agitation for Silver Coinage, and Bland-Allison Act, 1878. The silver in a silver dollar in 1871 was worth \$1.02. Those who had silver bullion sold it to manufacturers of silver-ware, instead of having it coined into dollars. For this reason, very few silver dollars were coined previous to 1873. The discovery of rich mines in the West greatly increased the production of silver, and caused the price to fall. A brisk agitation was therefore started, calling for free and unlimited coinage of silver. This, it was argued, would increase the amount of money, make better times, and, by creating a market for silver bullion, raise the price of that metal.

Representative Bland, of Missouri, introduced a bill in Congress providing for the *free and unlimited* coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1, which passed the House. The Senate, under the leadership of Allison of Iowa, changed the bill, and it became a law in 1878 under the popular name of the Bland-Allison Act.

THE BLAND-ALLISON ACT PROVIDED that—

1. The Secretary of the Treasury must purchase at the market price not less than \$2,000,000 worth nor more than \$4,000,000 worth of silver bullion, each month, and have it coined into standard silver dollars.

2. The silver dollars should be legal tender in payment of debts.

3. As it was inconvenient to carry many silver dollars, the Secretary of the Treasury was authorized to prepare paper money, called *silver certificates*, which could be put into circulation in place of the silver dollars. Whenever silver certificates were put into circulation, a corresponding number of silver dollars were to be put into the government treasury. Under this act 378,166,000 silver dollars were coined. The act was repealed, November 1, 1890.*

Railroad Strike, 1877. One of the alarming events in Hayes's administration was the great railroad strike of 1877. The Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company made a reduction of ten per cent in the wages of its employés, who refused to accept the reduction, and went on a strike. Men from other lines joined out of sympathy, and soon tied up all traffic East and

* NOTE.—This table is to be studied, not committed to memory. It will give at least one good reason why silver bullion has fallen in price compared with gold.

PRODUCTION OF GOLD AND SILVER IN THE UNITED STATES.

<i>Decades.</i>	<i>Value of Gold.</i>	<i>Fine oz. of Silver.*</i>	<i>Value pr. oz. Silver.</i>
1860-1870.....	\$468,000,000	78,000,000	\$1.35 to 1.32
1870-1880.....	405,000,000	248,000,000	1.32 to 1.12
1880-1890.....	327,000,000	390,000,000	1.14 to .93
1890-1900.....	463,000,000	563,000,000	1.04 to .59
1900-1910.....	856,000,000	603,000,000	.67 to .52
1910.....	96,000,000	57,000,000	.52

* An ounce of silver makes more than a silver dollar. An ounce contains 480 grains; a silver dollar weighs 412½ grains, of which nine-tenths is silver and one-tenth alloy.

West. The lawless elements formed into mobs which destroyed cars, engines, stations, and other railroad property. Troops were called out to suppress the violence of the mobs in Chicago, Pittsburg, Baltimore, and other cities. This was accomplished, but not until a hundred lives were lost and about \$10,000,000 worth of property destroyed.

Presidential Election, 1880. Hayes was not a candidate for reëlection. A determined effort was made by Roscoe Conkling and 305 delegates in the national convention to nominate General Grant for a third term. But Grant and James G. Blaine, who were the leading candidates, were both defeated, and the nomination went to James A. Garfield, of Ohio, a "dark horse." Chester A. Arthur, of New York, was nominated for Vice-President.

The Democrats nominated General Winfield S. Hancock, of New York; the Greenback Party, James B. Weaver, of Iowa; and the Prohibitionists, Neal Dow, of Maine.

The Republicans favored a protective tariff, civil-service reform, the suppression of polygamy in Utah, and the restriction of Chinese immigration. The Democrats favored a tariff for revenue only, civil-service reform, and the restriction of Chinese immigration.

Garfield and Hancock each carried nineteen states, but Garfield received 214 electoral votes, while Hancock received only 155.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Tell of the Carpet-Bag rule in the South. Of the Kuklux Klan. Of the "Force" Bills. What troubles threatened our peace abroad at this time? Give the substance of the Washington Treaty. What were the Alabama Claims? How were they settled? What boundary line was settled by the Emperor of Germany? Where was a new discovery made of gold and silver? Give the result. What was the Pony Express? The Overland Stage? What railroads received government aid? Why? What was the Homestead Act of 1862? What effect did the Homestead Law, and construction of railroads in the West have on the country? What six new states came into the Union in 1889-1890? Tell of the admission of Oklahoma. What two territories were included in the new State? What caused the Panic of 1873? What was the Specie Resumption Act? Tell

of the Whisky Ring. Of the inflation of Silver. Of the Centennial Exhibition of 1876. What was the Joint High Commission? Who was chosen President? What is meant by "Civil-Service Reform"? What progress has been made in Civil Service? Is this a good system? Why? What caused a strong agitation for "free and unlimited coinage of silver" in the seventies? What compromise was made? What was the Bland-Allison Act? Give the cause of the strike of 1877.

CHAPTER XXXV.

FROM GARFIELD TO MCKINLEY.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES A. GARFIELD, 1881-1885.

Scramble for Office. As soon as Garfield became President, office-seekers besieged him on every hand for appointments.



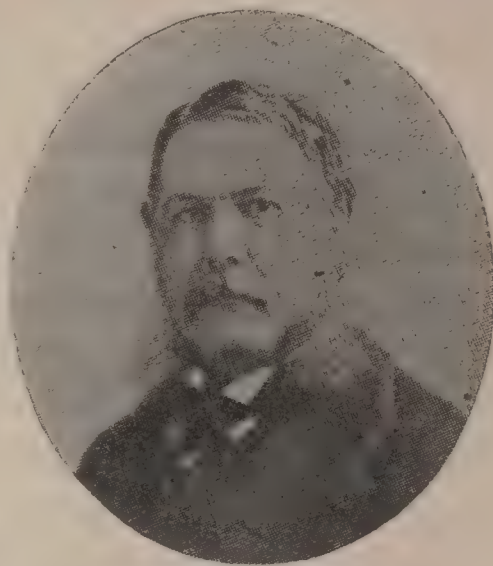
JAMES A. GARFIELD.

While the Republican party platform declared for civil service, the political leaders were loath to give up party patronage. Senators and representatives claimed that the right to name persons for appointments in the states belonged to them. Garfield appointed James G. Blaine as his Secretary of State. This was distasteful to Roscoe Conkling, senator from New York. Conkling and Blaine were enemies and political leaders of two wings into which the Republican party was divided; the former, of the "Stal-

warts" or machine wing; the latter, of the "Half-breeds" or reform wing. This breach in the party was opened wider when, upon the recommendation of Secretary Blaine, the President appointed William Robertson as collector of the port of New York, over the protests of Senator Conkling and his colleague Thomas M. Platt. Both senators resigned their seats, and returned to their state, expecting that the legislature would reelect them to vindicate their position, but in this they were disappointed.

Assassination of Garfield. Party spirit ran high, and reached such a stage of factional feeling that it indirectly resulted in the death of the President. A few weeks after the

resignation of the New York senators, on July 2nd, as President Garfield stood in the Baltimore & Ohio depot at Washington, waiting for a train, he was shot by Charles J. Guiteau (Gē-tō')* of New York, a fanatical "Stalwart" and disappointed office-seeker. Garfield lingered between life and death for more than two months, and finally died, September 19, 1881. Chester Alan Arthur, the Vice-President, succeeded to the presidency and filled the unexpired term.



CHESTER ALAN ARTHUR.

Immigration. The immigrants from foreign lands have had an important part in the settlement and development of our country. From 1783 to 1910, about 28,000,000 foreigners came to the United States.† Failure in crops, hard times, and political oppression in Europe, as well as high wages in the United States, have all helped to increase emigration to this country. For instance, the failure of the potato crop in Ireland in 1846 and 1854, and the hard times in Germany in 1853, greatly swelled the stream of immigration to the United States; and because of the especially prosperous times from 1904 to 1906, more than 2,000,000 foreigners arrived in this country.

Panics and periods of business depression here, always temporarily decrease immigration. Only 855,000 immigrants arrived in the five years after the panic of 1873, while 1,886,000 came during an equal time immediately before the panic. A similar decrease followed the panic of 1893.

CHARACTER OF THE IMMIGRANTS. The countries of northern and central Europe (England, Scotland, Ireland, Holland, Germany, Norway, and Sweden) until recently furnished the greater number of our immigrants, most of whom were persons

* A jury pronounced Guiteau guilty of murder, and he was hanged June 30, 1882.

† No immigration records were kept prior to 1820, but estimates place the number of immigrants who came to this country from the close of the Revolution up to 1820, at 250,000.

of good character and high intelligence. They came to make homes, and readily absorbed the spirit of our institutions. A large number being skilled laborers, mechanics and farmers, they helped to develop all lines of industry, and by thrift, energy and integrity, became most honorable and useful citizens. In recent years, however, the general character of the immigrants has not been as good as in former times, because they have represented less favored regions. A large majority have come from southern and eastern Europe,—from Italy, Greece, Poland, Russia, and Hungary, and do not readily become Americanized. To these may be added Mexicans and Asiatics, many of whom after saving sufficient money return to their native land with their savings. One of the most difficult things for the ignorant foreigners to learn is that in America *liberty* is not *license* to do wrong. Hence, in times of strikes and disturbance, they have often been prominent in committing acts of violence.

IMMIGRANTS FROM 1860 TO 1910, BY PERIODS OF FIVE YEARS.

1860-65.....	697,000	1890-95.....	2,455,000
1865-70.....	1,344,000	1895-1900.....	1,394,000
1870-75.....	1,886,000	1900-05.....	3,355,000
1875-80.....	885,000	1905-10.....	4,948,000
1880-85.....	3,037,000	1910.....	1,041,570
1885-90.....	2,211,000		

LEGISLATION REGULATING IMMIGRATION. There has always been a large number of people in our country wishing more restriction placed on immigrants and immigration. The Alien and Sedition Laws (1798) and the American or Know-Nothing Party (1856) were movements representing this feeling.

The influx of such a large number of persons, many of whom were undesirable, finally led Congress to pass more stringent immigration laws. The Anti-Contract Labor Law of 1885 forbids anyone from bringing aliens into the United States under agreement to perform labor. The law of 1903 excludes all idiots, anarchists, paupers, criminals, diseased persons, and various other undesirable classes, and requires all persons admitted to pay a tax of two dollars. Many persons believe that

the tax should be increased to \$50 or \$100, and that no one should be admitted who cannot read and write.

THE CHINESE. The Chinese first began coming to this country soon after the discovery of gold in California. They found work at railroad-building, in the mines, and as domestic servants. Their standard of life was so low that they could live on a few cents a day, and thus save money at wages for which Americans could not afford to work. White laborers found it difficult to get employment in competition with the Chinese. Many of these Orientals were brought by immigration companies to whom they had sold their services for a period of years, expecting sometime to return to China with their savings. But public sentiment turned against them, and the state of California attempted to stop this immigration by taxing the Chinese immigrants; this action was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States, for it was in violation of the Burlingame Treaty of 1868, which allowed them the right to come. An act was passed by Congress (in 1882) prohibiting Chinese immigration for ten years, and additional anti-Chinese legislation has been enacted at intervals since, with the result that all Chinese are now excluded from the United States excepting officials, students, travelers, and teachers. The Geary Act of 1893 required all Chinese then in the country to register and get a certificate of residence. By these records, officials can tell whether immigrants gain admission contrary to the Exclusion Act.

A VITAL PROBLEM. The immigration problem is today one of vital importance. Each year brings a number of immigrants greater than the total number that arrived between the settlement of Jamestown and the Revolutionary War. The low standards of living followed by many of them tend to reduce wages; their concentration in great cities is a serious problem for the city governments. Can we assimilate and mould these millions into Americans and maintain our standards of life and the Republic unimpaired?

Australian Ballot. Under our old system of voting each party had a separate ballot. A man went to the polls, selected

and marked his ballot in plain view of others. This afforded an opportunity for employers and bribe-givers to corrupt or coerce him into voting as directed. This temptation to bribery and coercion has been largely removed by the general use of the Australian plan of voting. The voter enters the booth alone, and in secrecy prepares and folds his ballot, upon which the names of the candidates of all parties appear. No one but himself can know how he voted, and as electioneering is not permitted at or about the polls a person has perfect freedom in casting his ballot.

Presidential Campaign of 1884. In the campaign of 1884 the tariff question, currency and civil service were leading issues. The Republican party nominated James G. Blaine and John A. Logan. The Democrats nominated Grover Cleveland and Thomas A. Hendricks. Nominations were also made by the Greenback, Prohibition, American, and Equal Rights (or Woman Suffrage) parties.

Cleveland had attained a reputation for ability and independence as Mayor of Buffalo and as Governor of New York. Blaine had long been prominent in national politics, having been three times Speaker of the House of Representatives, and was Secretary of State under Garfield. He was an able man, with an attractive personality, but nevertheless had many enemies in his own party,—some because they were jealous, and others because they questioned his integrity. A number of these, who styled themselves independent Republicans but were nicknamed “Mugwumps,” bolted the ticket, and Cleveland was elected, receiving 219 electoral votes to Blaine’s 182. He was the first Democratic President after the Civil War.

ADMINISTRATION OF GROVER CLEVELAND, 1885-1889.

Political Changes. The Republicans had controlled the affairs of government for twenty-four years, and naturally when Cleveland became President he was besieged by office-seekers of his party, who still believed that “to the victors belong the spoils.” But Cleveland, holding that merit should control appointments to office, greatly increased the scope of

the civil-service act by transferring positions from the unclassified to the classified list, at the risk of displeasing many who had voted for him. He was also in other ways a capable and fearless President. Among the important laws passed during his administration were: 1. The Presidential Succession Act; 2. The Interstate Commerce Act; 3. The Chinese Exclusion Act. (See p. 427.)



GROVER CLEVELAND.

Presidential Succession Act, 1886. The law of 1792 provided that in case of death, resignation, or other disability of both the President and Vice-President, the president *pro*

tempore of the Senate, and if there was no president *pro tempore* of the Senate, then the speaker of the House of Representatives, should succeed to the presidency. The death of Garfield occurred after the Forty-sixth Congress and before the Forty-seventh Congress met. There was therefore neither president *pro tempore* of the Senate nor speaker of the House of Representatives. Had Arthur died, the nation would have been without a President. It sometimes also happens that the presiding officers of the Senate and the House of Representatives belong to different parties from that to which the President and Vice-President belong.* To change from a victorious party to a defeated party before the end of the four-year term, would be neither fair nor good business policy. Accordingly, a new law was passed in 1886, correcting these defects. This law provided that in case of the death or disability of both President and Vice-President, members of the Cabinet shall succeed to the office of President, beginning with the Secretary of State, and extending down the list one after the other in the order in which their offices were created. The order is:

* After Vice-President Hendricks died in Cleveland's first administration, John J. Ingalls, a Republican senator from Kansas, and president *pro tempore* of the Senate, would have become President, in the event of Cleveland's death while President.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Secretary of State. | 6. Secretary of the Navy. |
| 2. Secretary of Treasury. | 7. Secretary of the Interior. |
| 3. Secretary of War. | *8. Secretary of Agriculture. |
| 4. Attorney-General. | 9. Secretary of Commerce and Labor. |
| 5. Postmaster-General. | |

Debt, Revenue, and Surplus. As a result of the high tariff and internal revenue taxes laid to meet the cost of the Civil War, vast sums of money continued to flow into the national treasury, until a large surplus had accumulated after current expenses and debts then due were paid. Less money was needed, so Congress removed the internal revenue tax from many articles and lowered it on others. The income from this source then dropped from \$309,000,000 in the year 1866 to \$110,000,000 in 1875. For the same period there was little change either in tariff rates or in the income from tariff duties. A ten-per-cent tariff reduction was made in 1872, but the original schedule was restored in 1875. Another slight reduction was made in 1883. Yet, the government receipts were greater than the expenses, the surplus amounting in 1888 to \$103,000,000. What should be done with the money? Several things were suggested: 1. To deposit the money in banks; 2. To reduce the income by reducing taxes; 3. To spend more money for internal improvements; 4. To pay bonds not yet due.

President Cleveland favored the reduction of the tariff tax; and the Mills Bill, embodying his views, passed the Democratic House but was rejected by the Republican Senate. The surplus was then used to reduce the debt, but the government had to pay the bond-owners more than face value, before they would consent to give up good interest-paying securities not yet due.

From 1879 to 1890 the debt was reduced \$1,105,000,000, which is without a parallel in the history of nations.

Abuses by Railroads. Many abuses sprang up in the management of railroads, which resulted in injustice to individuals

* The Secretary of Agriculture and Secretary of Commerce and Labor were placed in line of Presidential succession when their departments were created.

and communities. In many instances the roads helped trusts, like the Standard Oil Company, to crush out competition and ruin the small producers by charging them higher rates. They charged lower rates when there were competing trunk lines, and then made up for the loss by charging high freight rates to shippers who were compelled to rely only on a single road. They discriminated against the small shipper in favor of the large one, and opposed the natural spread of industry by giving low rates to one locality and charging high rates to another.

In addition to this, many persons believed that the shipping rates in many cases were too high. The western farmers believed that they were charged too much in marketing their grain and stock. In response to this sentiment, in 1867, they formed an organization called the Patrons of Husbandry or Grangers, whose main purpose was to get more favorable transportation rates for the products of the farm. This opposition to abuses in the railroad management spread until the public demanded that Congress pass a law to end this discrimination and these extortionate rates. The result was the Interstate Commerce Act.

The Interstate Commerce Act, 1887. This act, passed in 1887, regulates passenger and freight rates where the transportation is conducted through more than one state, and provides for a Commission of five men, appointed by the President, to see that the law is obeyed. The Commission has power to hear all evidence and enforce its decisions in the courts if necessary.

The law provides that: 1. Railroads shall not charge one person more than another for the same service; 2. Freight rates must be posted where persons can see them, and no changes can be made without notice; 3. Roads shall not charge more for a short haul than for a longer one, provided the former is included in the latter. 4. There shall be no "pooling." 5. Roads must make a sworn statement of their business to the government.

The Rate Law of 1906 gives the Interstate Commerce Commission power, specifically, to fix rates, allowing the roads the

right of appeal to the courts. It prohibits railroads from giving rebates and from issuing passes, except to their employés. Pipe lines, express companies and sleeping-car companies are placed under the provisions of the law.

By means of these laws, much injustice to the masses and in favor of special persons and powerful corporations has been corrected.

Presidential Election, 1888. Revenue, surplus and tariff were the important issues between the two great parties in the campaign of 1888. The Democrats again nominated Cleve-



BENJAMIN HARRISON.

land, and advocated economy in office and tariff for revenue only, which they claimed would reduce the surplus and lower the cost of living. The Republicans nominated Benjamin Harrison and Levi P. Morton. They favored a tariff to protect home manufactures. The party leaders argued that a high tariff protects industries, makes high wages, and results in good times. The Prohibition, Union Labor and United Labor parties nominated candidates. Harrison, having re-

ceived the highest number of electoral votes, was elected, but Cleveland received the majority of the popular vote.

ADMINISTRATION OF BENJAMIN HARRISON, 1889-1893.

The McKinley Tariff Act, 1890. The Republicans passed a new tariff law, the McKinley Act,* which raised the duties on imports higher than ever before. Raw sugar was placed on the free list, but in order to protect the sugar interests a bounty of two cents was paid by the government to sugar manufacturers for every pound of sugar made within the United States. This

* Tariff bills are usually named after the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, which makes the tariff act. William McKinley was at this time chairman of this committee.

was a departure from any previous plan. The act also contained a reciprocity clause, which authorized the President to reduce the tariff rates on articles not produced in this country, providing other countries would reduce their duties in like manner on our products. In this manner a greater market was anticipated for our machinery and other manufactured goods in other countries, while many foreign products are admitted to the United States free, or on the payment of a small duty.

Growth of Trusts and Corporations. The latter part of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth centuries are noted for the rapid growth of trusts and combinations of business on a large scale. The principal object is so far as possible to destroy competition, reduce the cost of production, control prices, and increase profits. Combines have been made by the purchase of rival plants, by an agreement upon prices with rival companies, and by underselling and forcing weaker companies into bankruptcy, and then restoring prices. So marked has been this movement for the combination of capital, that almost every line of important industry is under its control, or has felt its influence. Out of this condition have come great "captains of industry," and multi-millionaires (Rockefeller, Carnegie, Rogers, Hill, Harriman, Morgan, Gould, Vanderbilt, and many others), who exercise a mighty influence over the industrial and financial affairs of the nation.

Though many evils have attended the growth and development of trusts and corporations, they had have much to do with the development of more efficient business methods. They have lessened the cost of production, eliminated waste, and made use of by-products; but too frequently, when controlled by greed and avarice, they have oppressed the laborer, disobeyed laws, destroyed competitors, and raised prices to make enormous profits.

These evils led Congress in 1890 to pass the Anti-Trust Act, violations of which are made punishable by fine or jail sentence.

The Sherman Purchase Act, 1890. The large amount of silver coined under the Bland-Allison Act (see p. 421) did not

keep the price of silver bullion from falling, so the advocates of the free coinage of silver, who were largely found in the West and South, again became very active; while they failed to secure a law providing for the free coinage of silver, they succeeded in getting a compromise measure called the Sherman Purchase Act, which repealed the purchase clause of the Bland-Allison Act and greatly increased the amount of silver bullion purchased by the government.



THE UNITED STATES TREASURY AT WASHINGTON.

Into this building flows all the money collected by the government from customs and internal revenue taxes and from it the money flows in a never-ending stream, millions each day. In its vaults are stored hundreds of millions of dollars in gold and silver, and into it come the vast millions of paper money, notes crisp from the Bureau of Printing and Engraving, before they are passed into the channels of business.

Here thousands of persons, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, are employed to carry on this branch of the big business of the government.

The Sherman Act provided that :

1. The Secretary of the Treasury should purchase 4,500,000 ounces of silver bullion each month, and pay for it by issuing paper money called treasury notes.
2. The treasury notes should be redeemable in coin.
3. The silver bullion should be stored in the treasury at Washington, but 2,000,000 ounces should be coined each month

until July 1, 1891, after which date coinage should be optional with the Secretary of the Treasury.



DESTROYING PAPER MONEY IN THE BUREAU OF PRINTING AND ENGRAVING.

Here more than a million dollars' worth of old, dirty or mutilated paper money, sent by bankers and other persons for redemption, is daily destroyed by being ground into pulp, in the government macerator. In exchange for these notes the government sends new, crisp bills, which pass into circulation until they too are returned to the Treasury, old, ragged and worn, to be exchanged for new ones.

The largest amount of paper money ever destroyed at one time was \$166,095,000.

Populist or People's Party, 1891. During the Civil War and for some time after, farm products were high and farmers prosperous. This condition was followed by a period of low prices and small profits to the farmer. The tariff protected many lines of industry, and thus made manufacturing centers more prosperous than rural districts. The spirit of discontent spread throughout the agricultural West and South. Various organizations, such as the Patrons of Husbandry (the Grange), the Farmers' League, the Farmers' Alliance, and others, were formed to further the interests of the farmer. These in 1889 united politically into the Farmers' Alliance and Industrial Union, which entered politics with the hope of securing more favorable legislation.

The Alliance leaders met with Labor Leaders (1891) and formed a new national party, called the People's Party, later known as the Populist Party. The next year they nominated James B. Weaver for President and James G. Fields for Vice-President, on a platform that demanded: 1. Free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold at a ratio of 16 to 1; 2. A graduated income tax; 3. That the government should lend money, secured by land and produce, to the people at a rate of two per cent. They also favored postal savings banks, election of United States senators by direct vote of the people, and a single term for the President of the United States. The party cast over 1,000,000 votes and elected twenty-two presidential electors.

The Democrats again nominated Cleveland for President and Adlai Stevenson for Vice-President. The Republicans nominated Benjamin Harrison and Whitelaw Reid. The principal issues were tariff, free coinage of silver, and trusts. The Democrats were victorious, and gained control of both houses of Congress, Cleveland receiving 277 electoral votes and Harrison 145.

CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION, 1893-1897.

Gold Reserve. The gold reserve is the supply of gold kept on hand by the government to redeem the paper money,—treasury notes issued for the purchase of silver bullion, and greenbacks. In 1893 there were nearly \$500,000,000 in paper, exchangeable for gold (\$150,000,000 treasury notes and \$346,000,000 greenbacks). Many doubted the ability of the government to redeem such a large and constantly increasing amount of paper money. The reserve since 1879 had never been less than \$100,000,000, and in 1890 it reached \$190,000,000. As hard times set in there was a heavy drain on the gold reserve: (1) Because imports exceeded exports and the balance in trade had to be paid in gold; (2) Importers by exchanging paper for gold made a heavy drain on the gold supply. The reserve thus rapidly dwindled. People became alarmed, drew gold out of banks, and began to hoard it, fearing the government would

be forced to pay in silver. The government, however, borrowed gold by issuing \$262,000,000 in bonds, and the credit of the nation was preserved, but the debt increased to the extent of the bond issue.*

Panic of 1893. The year 1893 will be remembered for the disastrous panic in financial and business circles. Every line of industry was affected. Money was withdrawn from circulation. Trade fell off, imports were greater than exports, and the expenses of the government during the year ending June, 1894, exceeded the income by \$165,000,000.

CAUSES. Fear of a change in the tariff laws, excessive speculation, especially in boom towns in the central and western states, and an over-production, combined with the fear that the government could not pay in gold, were the causes of the panic. Every line of industry was disturbed. A large number of individuals, banks and companies failed. Mills, factories and foundries were forced to close or run on short time.† Thousands of persons were thrown out of work, and families suffered for bread. In large cities soup-houses were opened to feed the hungry.

STRIKES AND "COXEY'S ARMY." The reduction of wages by the Pullman Company, near Chicago, in consequence of hard times, led to a strike. Employés of the various railroads entering Chicago, out of sympathy, refused to handle the Pullman cars. Riots followed, hundreds of cars were destroyed, and traffic was tied up. President Cleveland sent Federal troops to open up the mail routes.

Other effects of the hard times were the formation of armies of idle men like "Coxey's Army" from Ohio and Kelley's from San Francisco, who set out on marches to Washington to demand help from Congress.

Sherman Act Repealed. Believing that the issue of so

* The difference between the total imports and total exports, called the "balance in trade," is paid in gold. When the balance in trade is in favor of the United States, gold flows into the country. If the balance is against the United States, gold leaves the treasury.

† Five hundred banks and 15,242 firms with liabilities of \$346,000,000 failed in 1893; 156 railroads, including the Northern Pacific and Union Pacific, with 39,000 miles of road, went into the hands of receivers.

much paper money for the purchase of silver bullion was one of the chief causes of the financial and business disturbance, President Cleveland called a special session of Congress (August, 1893), and advised the repeal of the Sherman Act. (See p. 434.) Both Democrats and Republicans from the silver-producing states joined with the Populists to oppose it, but after long and exciting debates the Sherman Act was repealed, November 1, 1893.

The World's Fair, 1893.* The greatest of all the world's fairs yet seen was held in Chicago, 1893. It celebrated the four-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America. In addition to the general display, every state and all the leading nations erected buildings of their own. The grounds on the shores of Lake Michigan were large and attractive. The buildings were models in architecture. The exhibits in machinery, agricultural products, art, sculpture, science, education and invention were greater than any that had yet been seen. The nations of the earth vied with one another in making the finest and most artistic display. Nearly 22,000,000 admissions were taken at the gates.

Venezuela and the Monroe Doctrine. For some years the boundary line between Venezuela and British Guiana was in dispute. Great Britain refused to settle by arbitration, and in 1895 was about to enforce its claim to a portion of the territory claimed by Venezuela. President Cleveland informed the British government that such an act on the part of Great Britain would be a violation of the Monroe Doctrine. After an unsuccessful attempt to get England to submit the dispute to arbitration, the President sent a message to Congress recommending that the United States investigate, ascertain and declare the true boundary line, and "then it will be the duty of the United States to resist by every means in its power" any attempt on the part of Great Britain to take the territory belonging "of right to Venezuela." The message, which was warlike in tone, created much excitement in England and the United

* The original plan was to hold the fair in 1892. The work could not be completed on time, so the fair was postponed one year.

States. The final outcome, however, was that England yielded to the demands of Cleveland. A commission of five, including two judges of the United States Supreme Court, was appointed, which located the boundary line, 1899. A portion of the territory in dispute was awarded to Venezuela, but a larger portion was given to Great Britain.

The Wilson-Gorman Tariff Act, 1894. True to party pledges, the Democrats set to work to revise the tariff. After prolonged discussion the Wilson Bill passed both houses and became a law, August 27, 1894. The act lowered the duties on many articles, and put wool, salt and lumber on the free list. It restored the duty on sugar and repealed the bounty allowed under the McKinley Act. The bill was not satisfactory to Cleveland, but he believed it was better than the McKinley Act, so he let the bill become a law without his signature.

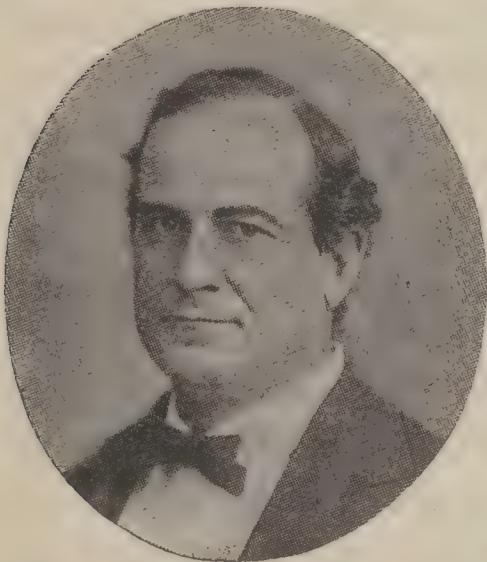
THE INCOME TAX LAW. One clause of the tariff act provided that two per cent of all annual incomes in excess of \$4,000 should be paid to the government. A man whose income was \$6,000 a year was required to pay 2 per cent of \$2,000 or \$40.*

Seal Fisheries. The greatest seal fisheries in the world are around the Aleutian Islands, off the coast of Alaska. The United States, after the purchase of this territory from Russia, claimed the exclusive right to the sea surrounding the islands, but Great Britain claimed an equal right outside of the three-mile limit from the shore. A number of Canadian vessels, while taking seals, were captured by American cruisers and their cargoes of sealskins confiscated. This threatened to disturb the peaceful relations between the two nations, but the dispute was finally settled by seven commissioners (two from the United States, two from Great Britain, and one each from France, Italy, Norway, and Sweden), at Paris, 1893. The commission decided that the United States could not control the waters beyond the three-mile limit, and that it should pay

* Because it was a direct tax, laid according to wealth and not in proportion to population, the Supreme Court by a vote of five to four declared the act unconstitutional.

for damages done the Canadian vessels. An agreement was also made between the two nations for a limited protection of the seals.

Presidential Campaign of 1896. The Republicans laid the cause of hard times to the tariff act. The Democrats and Populists laid it to the scarcity of money, and proposed to increase the amount of circulating medium by opening the mints to the free coinage of silver. The money question, therefore, became the issue between the old parties, and even led to divisions within the parties.



WILLIAM J. BRYAN.

The Democrats nominated William J. Bryan and Arthur Sewall, on a platform declaring for the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold at a ratio of 16 to 1, and for a tariff for revenue only. But an element of the party opposed the free-silver doctrine, and nominated John M. Palmer and Simon B. Buckner on a gold-standard platform.*

The Republicans opposed the free coinage of silver except by international agreement, favored a high protective tariff, and nominated William McKinley and Garret A. Hobart. Twenty-two delegates, representing the silver-producing states (Colorado, Idaho, Nevada, South Dakota, and Utah), led by Senator Henry M. Teller, withdrew from the Republican convention and assisted in forming a new party called the National Silver Party, which indorsed the nomination of Bryan and Sewall.

The Populist party nominated William J. Bryan and Thomas E. Watson. Nominations were also made by the Socialist-Labor, Prohibition, and National Prohibition parties.

No other campaign since the Civil War has stirred the nation so deeply on public questions, and no other has been so full of

* This was an indication that the bitterness of the Civil War was over in truth, for Buckner was the Confederate general who surrendered Fort Donelson to General Grant.

debate and argument on every rostrum and street-corner. McKinley and Hobart were elected.*

* McKinley and Hobart received 271 electoral votes and 7,111,607 popular votes. Bryan and Sewall received 176 electoral votes and 6,502,600 popular votes.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Tell of the death of President Garfield. What has influenced emigration from Europe to the United States? What European countries sent the largest number of emigrants? What was the "Anti-Contract Labor Law"? What was the Chinese Exclusion Act? Should there be greater restriction on immigration? What is the Australian Ballot? What benefits have come from its introduction? Who were the presidential candidates? Give the result of the election.

What was the Presidential Succession Act? Why passed? What is meant by debt? Revenue? Surplus? What different ways could the government take to reduce the surplus? What was the Interstate Commerce Act? What was Cleveland's attitude on Civil-Service Reform? What produced the surplus in 1888? For what purpose was the money used? What were the issues in the presidential campaign?

What was the McKinley Tariff Act? What was the Reciprocity clause? Tell something of the growth of trusts and corporations. What is meant by a "captain of industry"? A multi-millionaire? What was the Anti-Trust Act of 1890? What was the Sherman Act? Give its provisions. Give the origin of the Populist party. Name candidates and give issues in the campaign of 1892.

Tell of the gold reserve. Why were bonds issued? What produced the Panic of 1893? Tell some of its results. Tell of the World's Fair in Chicago. How did the Monroe Doctrine apply to the dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain? What was the Wilson Tariff Act? What is meant by an income tax? What was the Seal Fishery difficulty? How was it settled?

Name the important events in each administration in this chapter. Write the names of the leading men, and tell something about each.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

ANNEXATION OF ISLANDS AND SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

ADMINISTRATION OF WILLIAM McKINLEY, 1897-1901.

The Dingley Tariff Bill. Two days after his inauguration President McKinley called a special session of Congress to deal with the tariff and revenue, for the expenses of the government had for some time been greater than the receipts, and more revenue was needed. Congress repealed the Wilson Act and passed the Dingley Tariff Act (1897), which restored and in some cases increased the rates of the McKinley Act, and thus effected an increase in the income of the government.



WILLIAM McKINLEY.

Hawaiian Islands Annexed, 1898. Americans who had settled in Hawaii largely controlled the industries of the islands. The Queen (Liliuokalani) early in January, 1893, formed a new constitution which greatly increased her powers and restricted the rights of foreigners. The latter naturally objected to this, with the result that a band of soldiers, led by the Americans and aided by American sailors from the steamer *Boston*, deposed the Queen without loss of life, raised the American flag, and formed a republic,* which they declared a "protectorate" of the United States. A treaty of annexation to the United States was drafted and sent by

*Sanford B. Dole, an American, was chosen President.

special messenger to Washington. President Harrison sent the treaty to the Senate for ratification February 15, 1893, but before action was taken Congress adjourned and Harrison retired from office. Cleveland, who succeeded Harrison as President (March 4, 1893), withdrew the treaty from the Senate because of the belief that the success of the revolution was due to the presence of American sailors. Hawaii remained under her provisional government for several years, but at the outbreak of the Spanish-American War, when the need of a naval base in the Pacific became urgent, Congress passed a joint resolution, August, 1898, annexing the islands to the United States.

Samoa Islands Annexed, 1898. In efforts to extend our trade the United States became interested in a group of islands in the South Pacific, known as the Navigator or Samoan Islands, and leased the important harbor of Pago-Pago as a naval base. After several years of civil war between rival chiefs, Germany and Great Britain (which also had obtained a footing there) joined the United States to maintain peace and order in the islands. This was a difficult task because ambitious chiefs continued to plot and wage war against the native rulers. Moreover, the alliance with Great Britain and Germany was not satisfactory. By mutual agreement the trouble was settled in 1899, by dividing the islands between Germany and the United States, England receiving concessions elsewhere. Germany received all islands west of the 171st meridian and the United States all east of it, including the Islands of Manu, Ofoo, Olosengo, and Tutuila, with the harbor of Pago-Pago. Several other small and uninhabited islands in the mid-Pacific (Midway, Marcus, Baker, and Howland), not claimed by other nations, were in 1898 annexed to the United States for telegraph stations and landing-places in emergencies.

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

Spanish Rule in Cuba. Spain had witnessed the decline of her power on the American continent, until of her once glorious empire, extending over Florida, Mexico, California and South America, only Cuba and Porto Rico remained in her possession.

Over these she continued to rule with injustice and cruelty. Again and again had the Cubans taken up arms to free themselves from Spanish oppression, only to find their burdens and taxes made heavier at the close of each uprising. The \$300,000,000 which Spain had spent in suppressing the rebellions were added to the Cuban debt. Taxes became consequently more burdensome, and promised reforms were never granted; so the Cubans again rebelled (1895), and formed a republic.

American Interests in Cuba. Americans had invested much money in the plantations, mines and railroads in Cuba, and the United States carried on an extensive trade with the island. Of course our interests there were ruined by the struggle between Spain and the revolutionists.

Young men of adventurous spirits joined military expeditions which the Cubans attempted to fit out in some of our ports. Only by vigilance and at considerable expense could our government check these expeditions. In fact, the bond of sympathy felt for a people struggling for liberty was so strong that many of our people believed the United States should interfere and stop the war. In response to a protest sent out by our government, Spain promised greater freedom to Cuba under a constitution; but the Cubans would now accept nothing short of independence.

Reconcentration Camps. The war then went on with greater brutality than before; General Weyler, Spanish military governor, ruled the island with extreme cruelty. Wounded men and other prisoners were killed after fighting had ceased; peaceful citizens were murdered while at work, their dwellings were burned, and everything which might be of value to the fighting Cubans was destroyed. Women, children and old men, who had been left at home to cultivate the fields and raise the crops, were driven into camps and placed under military control. Probably 200,000 of these died of disease and starvation. Had the Spanish wished to depopulate the Island of Cuba, they could have taken no more effective way. A report of the condition of these unfortunate non-combatants so deeply moved the people of this country that \$50,000 was given by Congress, and many thousands were sent by individuals, to

relieve the suffering, while members of the Red Cross Society headed by Clara Barton went to Cuba to minister to the sick and needy.

General Weyler was finally succeeded by General Blanco, whose treatment of the Cubans was more humane, but no progress was made in restoring order and peace to the island.

Destruction of the Maine. While the United States was negotiating with Spain with a view to a possible settlement of the Cuban question, the American battleship *Maine*, anchored in the harbor of Havana, was suddenly blown up, February 15, 1898, and 264 sailors killed. The event naturally caused great excitement in the United States. Although a naval court of inquiry reported that the explosion was due to a submarine mine, the Spaniards claimed that they were not responsible for the disaster;* but the Americans firmly believed that they were.

War Declared.—Military Preparations. Congress, convinced that Spain should forfeit her right to rule over Cuba, passed a resolution, April 19, 1898, declaring Cuba free, demanding that Spain withdraw from the island, and authorizing the President to use the army and navy, if necessary, to enforce the demand. This was accepted by Spain as an act of war. She promptly gave our minister his passports, and recalled her minister from Washington. On April 25, Congress declared that "war exists" between Spain and the United States, and at the same time authorized the President to use the army and navy and to call upon the militia of the several states to the extent necessary to carry on the war.

The regular army was increased, and 200,000 men were enlisted from the large number who volunteered. The forts along the Atlantic were strengthened and the harbors protected by mines. Congress borrowed \$200,000,000 and passed a new internal revenue law, increasing both the rate of tax and the number of articles taxed.

As it was apparent that the war would be a contest largely

* In 1912 the United States government raised the *Maine*. An examination of the vessel proved that the first explosion came from the outside.

of the navies, the Pacific squadron under Commodore George Dewey, then at Hong Kong, China, was ordered to destroy the Spanish fleet at the Philippine Islands, where the natives, like those in Cuba, were in rebellion against Spain. Rear Admiral Sampson's fleet blockaded Cuba, while Commodore Schley guarded the Atlantic coast with a "flying squadron."



WINFIELD SCOTT SCHLEY.

Battle of Manila and Capture of the Philippines. A Spanish fleet of ten vessels, carrying 103 guns, lay in Manila Bay, protected by forts and mines. Before daylight on the morning of May 1, 1898, Commodore Dewey's fleet of six vessels, carrying 137 guns, steamed into the harbor, opened fire on the Spanish ships, and in four hours had gained one of the most brilliant naval battles in the world's history.



WILLIAM THOMAS SAMPSON.

Every Spanish vessel was destroyed, the crews killed or captured, and the land batteries silenced, without the loss of a single American man or ship.

Dewey then blockaded the city of Manila, and General Merritt was sent across the Pacific with 20,000 troops to occupy the Philippines. Dewey's fleet and Merritt's army, aided by some of the native insurgents, defeated the Spanish land forces, and compelled the surrender of the city and 7,000 soldiers, August 13, 1898. Thus the Philippines, which had been held by the Spaniards ever since their discovery by Magellan while circumnavigating the globe, fell into the



GEORGE DEWEY.

hands of the United States. For this brilliant victory Congress conferred a medal upon Dewey, promoted him to the rank of rear-admiral, and later ranked him admiral for life.

France, Germany and Austria were favorable to Spain. The attitude of Russia was doubtful, but Great Britain showed such active sympathy with the United States that intervention by the other nations was not considered wise. So Spain was left to fight her battles unaided.

Destruction of Cervera's Fleet, and Capture of Santiago. At the outbreak of the war Spain sent a fleet under Admiral Cervera to protect her interests in Cuba. There was much fear that it would make an attack on some of the cities along our coast; so orders were given to Sampson to intercept and destroy Cervera's fleet. After a long search it was discovered in the harbor of Santiago de Cuba, well protected by mines and forts. The American fleets with Sampson in command stood guard day and night at the entrance of the harbor, awaiting a chance to attack the enemy. Among other plans one was formed to close the narrow entrance to the harbor by sinking the coaling vessel *Merrimac* in the channel, and "bottle up" the Spanish fleet. On a dark night Ensign Hobson, aided by seven men, made the attempt, but the vessel was sunk in such a position that it only partially obstructed the entrance to one channel.

An army of 18,000 men under General Shafter was hastened to Cuba and landed near Santiago, to capture the city. Among the troops, composed mostly of regular soldiers, was the famous cavalry regiment of volunteers known as "Rough Riders," of which Leonard Wood was colonel and Theodore Roosevelt lieutenant-colonel. After severe fighting at San Juan Hill and El Caney, the Spaniards were driven into the inner lines of intrenchments at Santiago. Seeing that the city would soon be captured, Cervera made a dash from the harbor July 3rd, in a vain attempt to break through the blockading squadron. Every American ship in sight took up the chase and engaged the enemy in a great running fight. Every American sailor did his full duty, and the battle was short. In a few hours after leaving the harbor, every Spanish vessel was sunk or helplessly stranded, 600 Spanish killed or wounded, and 1,000 taken

prisoners. No serious damage was done to our vessels, and but one man was killed.

A few days later, July 14th, General Trel surrendered the city of Santiago, with 4,000 troops, and the eastern part of Cuba.

The Treaty of Peace. The power of Spain was completely gone in the Philippines and the West Indies. Her navy was destroyed and her armies captured, so that no course was left but to end the war on the best terms she could secure. After the French minister, acting for Spain, had signed a provisional treaty, August 12, 1898, which ended hostilities, commissioners from the United States and Spain met at Paris and drew up the final treaty, which was signed December 10, 1898. By the provisions of this treaty—

1. Spain gave independence to Cuba.

2. Spain ceded Porto Rico, Guam and the Philippine Islands to the United States.

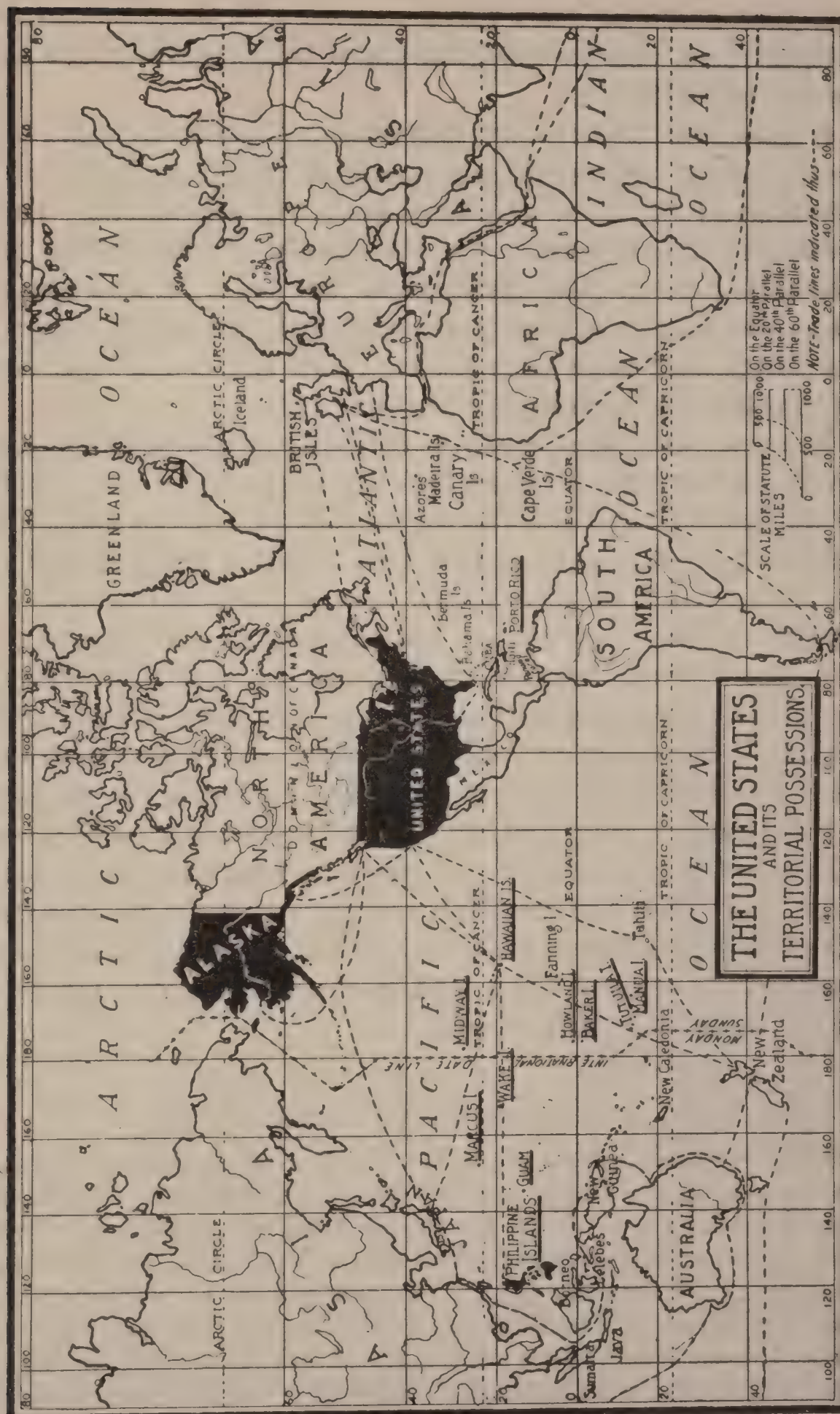
3. The United States paid \$20,000,000 to Spain for her property and sovereignty in the Philippines.

Cost of the War. Measured by the frightful losses in the Civil War, those of the Spanish-American War were insignificant. The number killed in the battle of Gettysburg alone was many times greater than the combined losses on both sides in all the battles on land and sea in the war with Spain. The national debt, however, was increased \$400,000,000 by the issue of bonds; and the enlargement of the army and navy necessary to protect the island possessions, together with the expenses incident to our sovereignty there, have added much to the yearly cost of our government.

Results. The main results of the war were:

1. ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY. Porto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines.

2. EXPANSION OF AMERICAN COMMERCE. Our trade with Cuba and Porto Rico has greatly increased, and the annexation of the Philippines, lying as they do on the border of Asia, has afforded us a greater opportunity for a wonderful expansion of commerce as well as given us a chance to exert a wider influence on the Orient.



3. **EXTENSION OF FREE GOVERNMENT.** To the Cubans came independence, and to the Philippines better government and greater opportunities.

4. **THE WAR HELPED TO DEVELOP A CLOSER UNION.** The bond of unity was strengthened among the people and the states. Volunteers came from all classes and from all sections—East, West, North, and South. By the side of Union soldiers and their sons were ex-Confederates and their sons, fighting against a common foe, while young men of wealth and social standing, like Theodore Roosevelt and Hamilton Fish, risked their lives by the side of the soldier of humble fortune.

The war with Great Britain (1812–1814) was not supported by all sections; the Mexican War was supported almost wholly by the South; the Civil War was a contest between the North and South; but the Spanish-American War had the support of all sections and all classes, and showed that our nation was bound together in sentiment and thought as never before.

5. **THE UNITED STATES RECOGNIZED AS A WORLD POWER.** Our great victories on land and sea amazed Spain and the great nations of Europe, which had looked upon our navy as of second class. Today the nations of the world recognize the strength of the American navy and the skill of the men behind the guns.

Europe thought that the United States began the war to seize Cuba, but when the republic was formed and the American troops were withdrawn, they learned that the United States had espoused the cause of Cuba for the sake of humanity instead of for the annexation of territory.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What was the Dingley Tariff Bill? Tell how the Hawaiian Islands became a part of the United States. The Samoan Islands. Tell of the Spanish rule in Cuba. What interests had Americans in Cuba? What were Reconcentration Camps? Tell of the destruction of the *Maine*. What action did Congress take? What preparations for war were made? Tell of the battle of Manila Bay. Tell of the battle of San Juan Hill. Tell of the defeat of Cervera's fleet and the capture of Santiago. What three things were gained by the treaty of peace? Name four results of the war. Tell of the United States as a world power.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT SINCE 1860.

INVENTIONS, COMMERCE, INDUSTRIES, EDUCATION, AND LITERATURE.

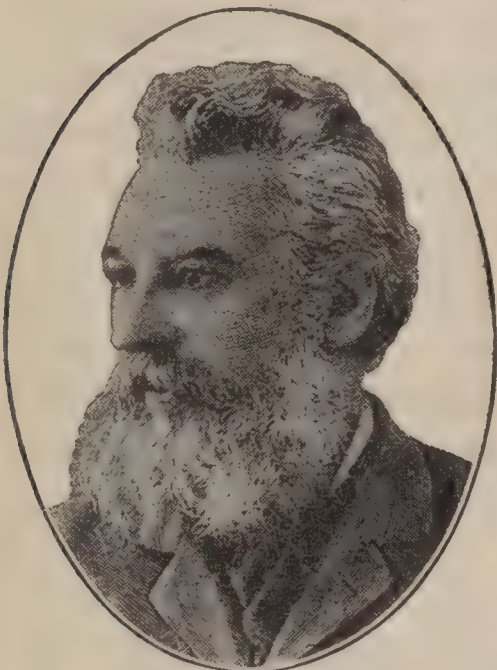
Inventions since 1860. The common saying, "There is nothing new under the sun," has been disproved many times by the marvelous inventions which have been made in recent years. The human mind has constantly been working out new ideas and applying them to the wants of man. Prior to 1860 the total number of patents granted was only 43,431, and since that time over a million have been issued, of which 37,000 were granted in the year 1909. These patents include both new inventions and improvements on old ones, covering a wide range of subjects and ministering to the ease, comfort, protection, pleasure and efficiency of mankind. Some of the more important ones are: Systems of heating by air, hot water, and steam; the Bessemer process of converting iron into steel, not used extensively prior to 1867; artificial ice machinery; the typewriter, placed on the market in 1874; typesetting and typesetting machines, perfected in 1890; the bicycle; the automobile; improved firearms; explosives; aëroplanes; railway safety appliances, such as airbrakes, automatic couplers, vestibule-coaches, automatic signals and switches; the phonograph; and many electrical appliances.



THOMAS A. EDISON.

ELECTRICITY. Remarkable progress has been made in the use of electricity since 1860. The arc light was invented

by Charles F. Brush in 1878, and about the same time Thomas A. Edison gave us the incandescent lamp. From these we have the modern lights for home, store, and street. As a motive power, through the dynamo and motor, electricity runs trolley and motor cars, and other wheeled vehicles, as well as fixed machinery. The telephone, first exhibited by Professor Alexander G. Bell in 1876, is another of the great wonders which



ALEXANDER G. BELL.

have come into even more common use than the telegraph. To these achievements may be added the marvels of wireless telegraphy, invented by Marconi, and Röntgen's (rěnt'gě'n) mysterious X-ray, which enables us to look through the living body and see the bones within, and thus locate foreign solid substances.

Manufacturing. Of all our great industries, manufacturing has shown the most remarkable increase. An examination of the table below will show that while the farm products were increasing four-fold, those

of the factory have increased more than ten-fold. Great as is the value of our agricultural products, those of the factory are more than twice as great. We are now the greatest manufacturing nation in the world. Our products of the factory in 1895 were twice as great as those of England, and one-third of those of all the nations of the world.

Some of the greatest lines of manufacturing are the iron and steel industries, the textile industry, which includes weaving cotton, wool, silk, and all forms of cloth, and the shoe industry.

	1860	1880	1900	1910
Products of the farm .	1,910,000,000	2,212,540,000	3,764,177,000	8,926,000,000
Products of mfng	1,885,861,000	5,369,579,000	13,014,287,000	20,672,000,000
Miles of railroad	30,635	93,267	198,964	234,885
Wealth	16,159,000,000	24,642,000,000	88,517,000,000	* 130,000,000,000

* Estimated for 1910. The nation next in wealth to the United States is Great Britain and Ireland, rated in 1910 at \$80,000,000,000.

Railroads Since 1860. The development of the various lines of industry necessitated a corresponding increase in railroad facilities. The 30,600 miles in use in the United States in 1860 was increased to 235,000 miles in 1908, including many miles of double track and in some places a four-track line. Our railroads traverse almost every habitable part of the Union, over prairie and through valley, crossing desert places, spanning broad rivers, winding through romantic gorges, climbing mountains and tunneling their crests, wherever business may be found or industry developed.



THIRTY YEARS OF PROGRESS IN LOCOMOTIVE-BUILDING.

The engine on the left was one of the largest in use in 1881. The one on the right was built by the Santa Fe Railway Company at Topeka, Kansas, in 1911, and is the largest engine in the world. Its length is over 120 feet and its weight is 850,000 lbs.

The little old engine and coaches once used pale into insignificance when placed side by side with mammoth locomotives and handsome trains of chair-cars, diners and Pullmans. And more startling still is a comparison of Washington's journey from Mount Vernon for his inauguration with a trip by special train of Roosevelt or Taft in a tour of the land.

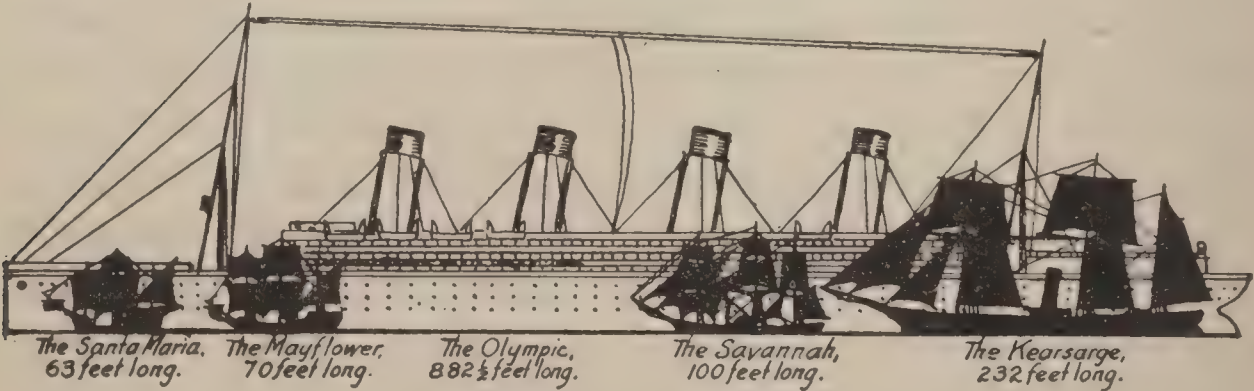
Mining. The mining industry is closely related to transportation and manufacturing. Coal is indispensable to the operation of railroad, factory and mill, and iron is an important element in all our modern machinery, railroads, bridges, and fire-proof buildings. Manufacturing has grown more rapidly where coal and iron are plentiful. For this reason, Pennsylvania and New York early became noted for manufacturing, while Pittsburg became the center of the iron industry. But with the discovery of iron, coal, petroleum and natural gas at various places, manufacturing spread rapidly into other sections.

The output of all our mines, which in 1860 was valued at \$100,000,000, has increased until in 1908 it was valued at more than \$2,000,000,000.

Commerce since 1860. Commerce has kept pace with the remarkable increase of the products of the soil, mine, and factory. Imports in 1911 were over four times and exports over six times as great as in 1860. Before 1875 we were buying more from foreign countries than they were buying from us, but since that date we have been selling much more to foreign nations than they have been selling to us. An examination of the table below will show that exports in 1911 were \$522,000,000 more than imports. This sum is much greater than the total amount of exports or imports in 1860. The increase in commerce is due not alone to the increased production of soil, factory and mine, but also to improved means of transportation and to a desire on the part of the people for more and better things.

Imports	1860	1880	1900	1911
Imports.....	353,000,000	668,000,000	850,000,000	1,527,000,000
Exports.....	333,000,000	835,000,000	1,394,000,000	2,049,000,000

Shipping and the American Navy. Most of this vast trade is carried in foreign vessels. While the number of our vessels for coast trade has greatly increased since the Civil



THE OCEAN LINER OLYMPIC.

This picture gives a side view of the steamship *Olympic*, showing its relative length compared with ships of different periods: the *Santa Maria*, in which Columbus sailed; the *Mayflower*, in which the Pilgrims came; the *Savannah*, the first steamship to cross the ocean; and the *Kearsarge*, which destroyed the Confederate cruiser *Alabama*.

War, our merchant marine for foreign trade has declined, being only one-third as great in 1909 as in 1860, although during the same time commerce has increased four-fold. Nine-tenths of our foreign trade in 1830 was carried in American vessels. After this date there was a marked decline, until in 1901 less than one-tenth of our foreign trade was carried by our ships.

The American navy, however, makes a better showing. The greatest navy in the world belongs to England, but the United States and Germany are in a close race for second place. Our government in 1910 spent over \$123,000,000 for the navy, which is \$33,000,000 more than the total cost of supporting the army and only \$37,000,000 less than the money paid as pensions to old soldiers during the same year. Many persons believe that this vast sum could be better expended for internal improvements, education, etc., but the advocates of a strong navy think it is the best way to keep peace with foreign nations and at the same time secure our rights.

The New South. Progress in the various lines of industry has not been confined to the East and West and North alone, but extends to the South as well. After the war, when the South began to adjust herself to the new conditions, she found that cotton and rice could be raised without slavery as well as with it. The cotton product in 1859, two years before the war, was 4,309,000 bales; in 1909 it was 10,000 000 bales.* Before the war the South had very little mining and manufacturing, but now she works her rich mines of coal and iron, and spins and weaves much of her own cotton. From 1902 to 1910, the cotton used in southern mills and factories was almost equal in amount to that used in northern mills. The value of all lumber cut in the United States in 1908 was \$510,000,000. Of this amount, fully one-half was cut south of the old Mason and Dixon line, and a large portion of it was used to build homes in the North. Hundreds of mills and factories dot the South.

The remarkable growth of industries in the South was shown at the New Orleans Cotton Exposition, 1884, at the Atlanta

* A bale of cotton weighs about 500 pounds.

International Exposition, 1895, and at the Jamestown Exposition, 1907.

TEXAS, the largest of the southern states, has had a remarkable growth. Her population increased from 818,000 in 1870 to 3,896,000 in 1910, and her railroad mileage from 711 miles in 1870 to 13,000 miles in 1908. The discovery of oil in vast quantities has added greatly to her prosperity.

Agriculture. Agriculture forms the basis of all other industries; even life itself depends upon it. Without the farmer there would be no commerce, mining, or manufacturing. It is of especial interest and importance, therefore, to learn that the value of our agricultural products has increased four-fold since the Civil War. This is due in a large measure to the opening-up of new lands in the West; but the draining of marshes, the opening of irrigating plants, dry farming, the employment of improved machinery, the use of fertilizers,—all have helped to bring better yields from the soil. The average labor-power of a man on a farm, with the improved machinery, is three times as great as it was before the Civil War. The state agricultural colleges, together with the Department of Agriculture, which includes the Bureaus of Animal Industry, of Plant Industry, of the Soil, of Chemistry, and of Weather, have done much to educate the farmers and place farming on a scientific basis. And the end is not yet. The soil must be made to yield more abundantly; the growth of population and the consequent increase in the value of farm lands will demand this. Some of the problems the farmer must solve are: adapting crops to different soils; crop rotation; fertilizing the land; cultivating the crops; improving live-stock; irrigating the soil; caring for agricultural machinery; dry farming; and marketing his products.

Population 1860 to 1910. No other country in the world has seen such a rapid increase in its population as has the United States. From 31,000,000 in 1860 it grew to 92,000,000 in 1910, an average increase for each decade of more than three times the total population when Washington became President. In 1810 the center of population was three miles east of Balti-

more. Since then it has been steadily moving westward along the 39th parallel. By 1860 it had moved half-way across the State of Ohio, and by 1910 it was in the city of Bloomington, Indiana, approximately thirty-nine miles farther west and seven-tenths of a mile farther north than in 1900. The advance toward the west is due largely to the increase of population in the Pacific coast states. Their distance from the center of



THE CENTER OF POPULATION MOVES WESTWARD ALONG THE LINE OF THE 39th PARALLEL.

population is so great, that it gives them much greater weight than an equal advance in the populous states in the East, where the increase was really greater than in the West.

The center of area, excluding Alaska and the Philippines, is in north-central Kansas, ten miles north of Smith Center, and 657 miles west of the center of population. The reason the center of population is so far east of the center of area is due largely to the fact that vast areas in the Rocky Mountain belt cannot be brought under cultivation, and that the East and Central West have greater facilities for manufacturing and commerce. A study of the following table will show the increase of population:

TABLE OF POPULATION BY DECADES.

1860.....	31,443,321	1890.....	62,622,783
1870.....	38,558,371	1900.....	75,994,575
1880.....	50,155,783	1910.....	91,972,267

Growth of Cities. The increase in cities has been greatly in excess of that of the country. In 1910 there were 229 cities each with a population of over 25,000; and of this number fifty had a population of over 100,000 each; eight of over 500,-

000 each; and three of over 1,000,000 each. The greatest of these is New York City, which had by the census of 1910, 4,766,000 people within its narrow limits,—a population greater than that of the rich and productive states of Kansas, Nebraska and Oklahoma taken together, or twice as great as the total population of the thirteen colonies in 1775; and its wealth at the same time was thirteen times as great as the total wealth of all the colonies at the outbreak of the Revolutionary War. To provide food and clothing and to properly educate and govern such a mass of people, many of whom are foreigners, are great and difficult problems.

The steady and rapid increase in the proportion of urban population is shown by the accompanying table, taken from the government reports :

PER CENT OF DISTRIBUTION.

	1880	1890	1900	1910
Urban.....	29.5	36.1	40.5	46.3
Rural.....	70.5	63.9	59.9	53.7

By urban population here is meant persons living in cities and towns with 2,500 persons or more.



VIEW OF NEW AMSTERDAM (NEW YORK), 1656.

The growth of cities has not been confined to those in any one section of the country, but has extended to all parts of the United States. The highest percentage of increase in the last decade was in Oklahoma City, which grew from a town of 10,037 in 1900 to a city of 64,205 in 1910, making an increase of nearly 540 per cent. In point of numerical increase, however, New York City excels all others, having in a single decade



VIEW OF A SECTION OF NEW YORK, 1912, FACING THE HUDSON.

increased 1,229,000, which is more than the entire population of some states.

Money in Use. The pupil should make a study of the different kinds of money named in the table below, and be able to tell upon what conditions each is issued by the government. The number of dollars' worth of silver certificates in circulation corresponds to the number of silver dollars held in the government vaults.

MONEY IN USE IN THE UNITED STATES, FEBRUARY 1, 1912.

	GENERAL STOCK OF MONEY IN THE UNITED STATES.	HELD IN TREASURY AS ASSETS OF THE GOVERNMENT.	MONEY IN CIRCULATION.
	<i>February 1, 1912</i>	<i>February 1, 1912</i>	<i>February 1, 1912</i>
Gold coin (including bullion in Treasury)	\$1,803,282,321	\$164,195,516	\$603,474,436
Gold Certificates		71,458,840	964,153,529
Standard Silver Dollars	565,222,367	7,522,937	73,105,430
Silver Certificates		15,934,925	468,659,075
Sursidiary Silver	164,667,449	21,775,660	142,891,789
Treasury Notes of 1890	3,057,000	11,651	3,045,349
United States Notes	346,681,016	9,547,034	337,133,982
National Bank Notes	741,661,968	47,855,918	693,806,050
Total	\$3,624,572,121	\$338,302,481	\$3,286,269,640

EDUCATION.

With this marvelous growth of the industries of the nation and the rapid increase in the wealth and population, there has been a general diffusion of education and a corresponding increase in opportunities for learning. Nowhere else in the world has there been such a general interest in education. There is a growing sense that *national strength* and *greatness* must rest upon the *intelligence* and *character* of *all* the people. With this end in view, the means of educating the people have been multiplied and placed within easy reach of all persons. Chief and foremost among these is the school system, embracing the elementary school, high school, normal school, private denominational college, and the university; but newspapers, magazines and libraries have had a wonderful influence on the diffusion of knowledge.

THE SCHOOL SYSTEM. Strictly speaking there is no national system of education in the United States. Each state makes its own laws for creating, managing and supporting its schools. Under these laws, however, states have vied with each other in establishing the best system, and people have taxed themselves in support of schools until in many places the money paid for school purposes is the chief item of taxation.

The number of pupils enrolled in the public and private elementary schools in the United States during the year 1910 was over 18,000,000, and the salaries paid for teaching these was nearly \$250,000,000. The states have not only placed the public school within easy reach of the pupils, but nearly all of them have enacted laws providing for compulsory education.

The growth of high schools, colleges and universities is quite as remarkable as that of the elementary schools. The high schools have improved until they give a better training than colleges afforded a century ago, and the colleges and universities have advanced their standards accordingly. During 1910 the enrollment in colleges and universities was 184,000 and that of the secondary schools (high schools and academies) was 1,131,000.

Some of the more recent educational movements include manual training, domestic science, commercial and industrial courses and university extension.

NEWSPAPERS. The modern American newspaper, now an important factor in education, is almost wholly the product of the last fifty years. For nearly three and a half centuries after the invention of type by Gutenberg, but little or no progress was made in printing. In 1800 only four or five of the largest cities had daily papers. For many years drivers of mail-coaches, travelers, peddlers, and captains of river boats and sailing vessels carried reports bearing the news from town to town.

With the introduction of the railroad and invention of the telegraph came increased facilities for getting news, but the process of printing with the hand-press was slow and expensive. Not until the general introduction of the cylinder presses (1830-1860) was there any great progress in newspapers and in printing.

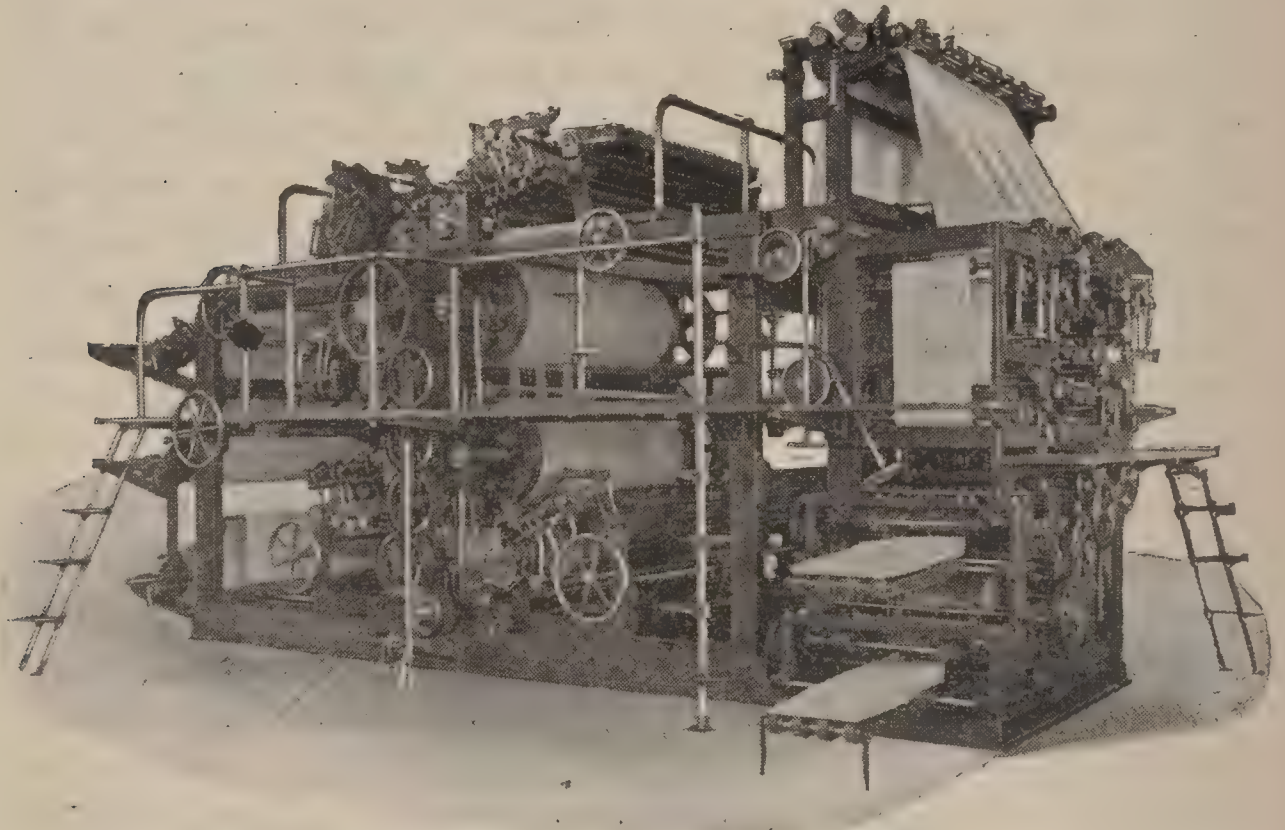
The great cost of getting the news induced a number of New York papers during the Civil War to form an agreement by which the same news should be sent to each of them, the cost being divided among those receiving the service. Hoping to reduce the cost still further, they began to sell news to editors of papers in other towns. From this sprang the Associated Press, the greatest agency in the world for collecting and distributing news of current events. Within a few hours after an event occurs, full reports may be sent to every part of the world.



THE PRINTING-PRESS USED BY
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Probably no greater progress has been shown in any line of industry than that of the advance from the little old wooden hand-press to the great cylinder press, composed of more than 2,000 separate pieces and printing from a roll containing more than two miles of white

paper. Today there are more than 23,000 papers and many high-class magazines, which reach almost every household in the nation.



A MODERN IMPROVED HOE PRINTING-PRESS.

This press prints, counts and folds copies of a thirty-page newspaper faster than a person can count them.

LIBRARIES. The history of libraries in America dates from the establishment of the Harvard College library in 1638, followed by the Yale and the William and Mary College libraries in 1700. Up to the year 1800 the largest library in the United States had but little more than 18,000 volumes. In 1833 the first free circulating library was established, at Peterboro, New Hampshire. This paved the way for subsequently establishing many free libraries, which are now found in nearly every city and in many towns. Hundreds of these are the result of the gifts of Andrew Carnegie. The scope and influence of the libraries have been greatly extended. Not many years ago they were supposed to be used chiefly by students, but the modern library, like the public school, reaches all classes and is a factor in making good citizenship.

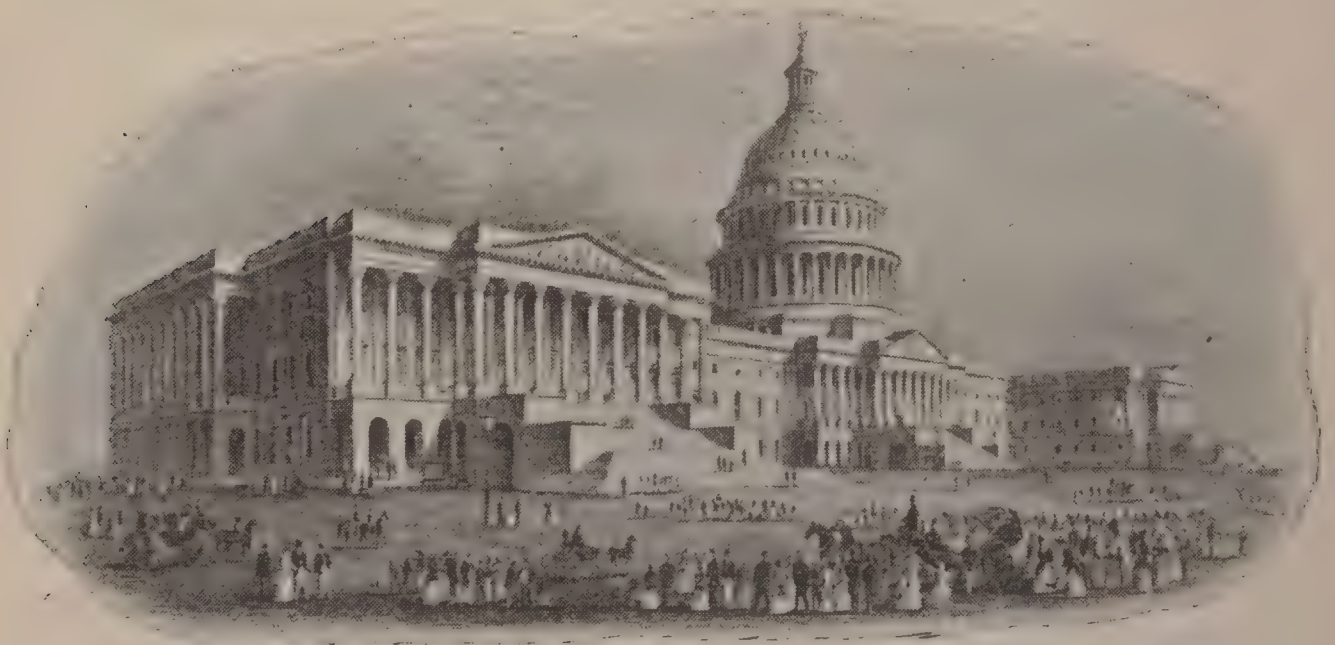
The Library of Congress, at Washington, which has over

1,000,000 volumes, takes first rank in this country. The building is the largest and finest library building in the world. The Boston Public Library, with nearly 900,000 volumes, ranks next to the Congressional Library.



THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS.

This is the most beautiful and costly library building in the world. It contains more than 1,000,000 books and forty-five miles of shelving. By means of a tunnel, books may be sent from the Library to the Capitol, a quarter of a mile away, and placed in the hands of Senators and Representatives in three minutes after leaving the Library.



THE NATIONAL CAPITOL BUILDING.

The National Capitol covers four acres. It cost, including the land, about \$16,000,000, and was seventy-four years in course of construction.

Here Congress meets, the Senate in one wing and the House of Representatives in the other. In the great rotunda under the dome are famous paintings and statues of illustrious men. Statuary Hall is the old Hall of Representatives, now dedicated as Memorial Hall. Here are placed statues of heroes and statesmen of the Nation. Each state may contribute figures of two of her most illustrious deceased sons.

NATIONAL LITERATURE, 1789-1912.

WASHINGTON IRVING, who was born in 1783, the same year that the treaty of peace with England was signed, has often been called "The Father of American Literature." "The Sketch Book," his first venture, is his greatest work. It consists of a series of romantic essays, tales and sketches. Some of these, like "Rip Van Winkle" and "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow," illustrate American manners, customs and superstitions; others, as "Westminster Abbey" and "Stratford-on-Avon," deal with English scenes and memories; while others, like the "Alhambra," detail the matchless beauties of Spain at the meridian of her glory. To biography he contributed "The Life of Columbus," "The Life of Goldsmith," and "The Life of Washington."

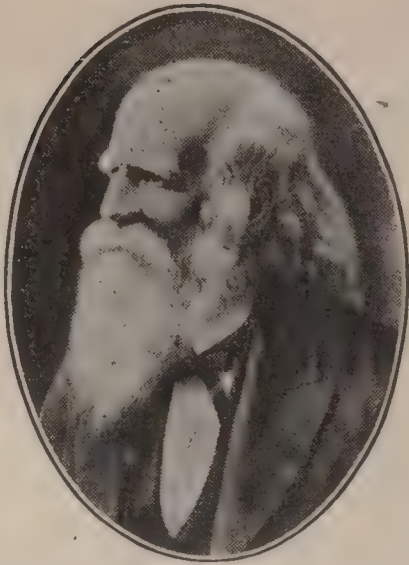
WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT was America's first great poet. "To a Waterfowl" is spiritually uplifting; "The Forest Hymn" is grand; "Thanatopsis" is sublime, while "Seventy-six" throbs with its ardent love of country.

JAMES FENNIMORE COOPER pictured the Indian and the pioneer in the deathless "Leather Stocking Tales," spun vivid sea-yarns, and won the distinguished title of "The American Walter Scott."

EDGAR ALLAN POE wrote "The Gold Bug," "The Black Cat," and fifty-eight other master tales of mystery, and "The Raven," "Annabel Lee," "The Bells," and thirty-seven other



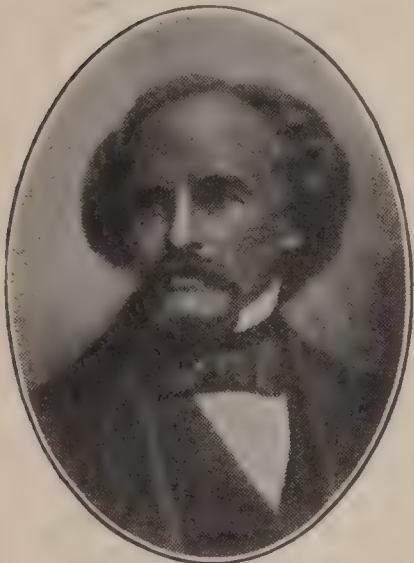
WASHINGTON IRVING,
1783-1859.



WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT,
1794-1878.



J. FENNIMORE COOPER.
1789-1851.



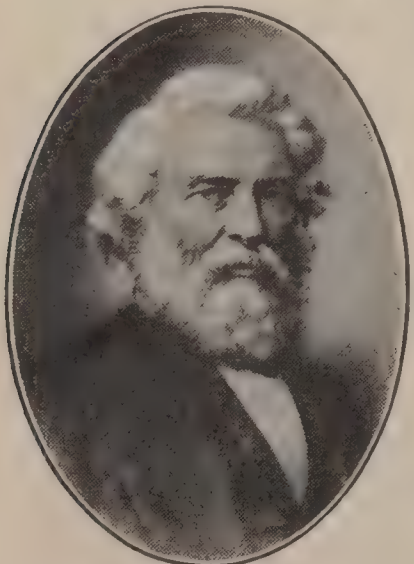
NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE,
1804-1864.



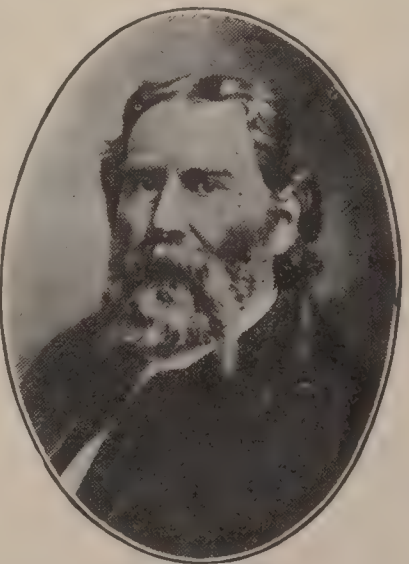
RALPH WALDO EMERSON,
1803-1882.



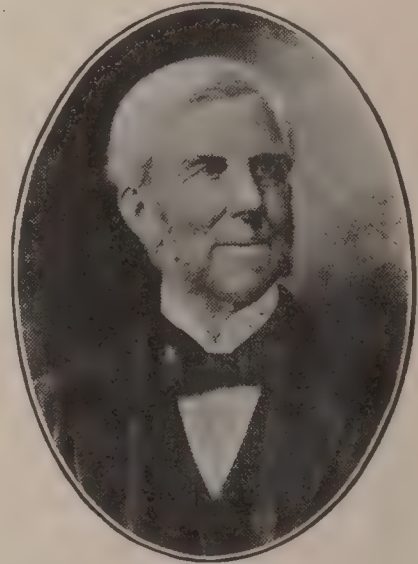
JOHN G. WHITTIER,
1807-1892.



HENRY W. LONGFELLOW,
1807-1882.



JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.
1819-1891.



OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES,
1809-1894.

poems. The tales are so enthralling and the poems fit words and meaning together so musically, that Poe probably deserves the distinction of being "America's greatest tale-writer and poet."

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE called his novels "romances, which can tell of marvelous circumstances" in the world of the human heart. So well does he path that world in "The Scarlet Letter," "The Marble Faun," and "House of the Seven Gables," that he is known as the "Puritan Shakespeare of New England." Boys and girls know him best through "Grandfather's Chair," "The Great Stone Face," "The Snow Image," "Peter Parley's Histories," "The Wonder Book," and "Tanglewood Tales."

RALPH WALDO EMERSON occupies a place by himself as a philosopher. Like Franklin, he was a writer of proverbs; but the difference between the mysticism of Emerson and the practical nature of Franklin is finely illustrated by the motto of the former, "Hitch your wagon to a star," and the homely suggestion of the latter that "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." His greatest writings are essays upon such subjects as "Compensation," "Love," and "Behavior." His poems are of unequal value, but some of them, like "The Concord Hymn" and "Rhodora," are of the highest rank.

JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER was a writer of ballads and the poet of freedom. Every child is familiar with "Maud Muller," "Barbara Frietchie," "The Barefoot Boy," "The Tent on the Beach," and "Voices of Freedom." His "Snow-Bound" has glorified the New England home-life in very much the same way that Burns's "Cotter's Saturday Night" has that of Scotland.

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW expressed popular thought and feeling "in the simplest and most melodious manner." All students of American history know his "Paul Revere's Ride," "Hiawatha," "Evangeline," and "The Courtship of Miles Standish." The children are just as familiar with his "Psalm of Life," "Excelsior," "The Bridge," and "The Village Blacksmith." Indeed, the children know him so well that he has been called the children's poet. But with the "Golden Legend," the translation of Dante's "Divine Comedy," and

the multitude of his other poems, he appeals just as strongly to the mature and scholarly of our land and of Europe.

ESSAYISTS AND POETS. Oliver Wendell Holmes and James Russell Lowell may be linked together as essayists and poets. When we think of Holmes's "Autocrat," "Professor," and "Poet at the Breakfast Table," and Lowell's "Study Windows" and "Among My Books," we are likely to conclude these are their best works; but when we refresh ourselves with "The Chambered Nautilus," "The Last Leaf," "Old Ironsides," and "The Wonderful One-Hoss Shay" of the former, and the "Biglow Papers," "The Vision of Sir Launfal," "The Harvard Commemoration Ode," and "The Present Crisis," of the latter, we are convinced that they are supreme as poets.

ORATORS. The first sixty years of national life produced many great orators and public speakers, chief among whom were Webster, Clay, Calhoun, Phillips, Everett, and Lincoln.

HISTORIANS. Prescott, Motley, Parkman, Hildreth, Bancroft, Fiske, McMaster, Schouler, Wilson and Rhodes were authors distinguished for their historical writings. All but Prescott, Motley and Parkman wrote of the history of the United States.

LITERATURE SINCE THE CIVIL WAR. Since the war we have had dialect and humorous verses from such writers as Riley, Carleton, Saxe, and John Hay; and, while Stedman, Stoddard and others have been verse critics, no great poets have appeared.

The old love-story with its intense feeling has been replaced by novels of "purpose," "real" novels, "analytical" novels, "dialect" novels, and the whole series of problem studies masquerading under the name of fiction.

To this post-war period belong the works of Lew Wallace, Edward E. Hale, Julian Hawthorne, Mary Johnston, Winston Churchill, and numerous other writers of fiction who came near achieving greatness, as well as those of America's greatest humorist, Samuel L. Clemens (Mark Twain).

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What are patents? Of what value are they? Are many issued? Name some of the inventions made since 1860. Tell of the growth of manufacturing, mining, commerce, shipping. What relation has railroad-building to the development of the industries of a country? Tell something of the great changes that have taken place in the South. What progress has been made in agriculture? What do you know of the increase in population since 1860? Discuss the westward movement of the center of population. Where is the center of area of the United States? Study the table of money in use in 1912, and tell something about the different kinds of money made by the government.

What effect does education have upon the greatness of a nation? Name the chief agencies for diffusing education. Describe the school system, growth of newspapers, printing, and the increase of libraries. Name the principal poets and essayists, giving some of their writings. Who was called the "Father of American Literature"? Who is called the "children's poet"? Name the orators and historians. Tell what you can of the writers since the Civil War.

Tell something of Thomas A. Edison, Alexander G. Bell, Marconi.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

RECENT PROBLEMS AND EVENTS.

New Problems. The annexation of the Philippines and other islands brought the nation face to face with new problems. Hitherto all territory annexed, excepting Alaska, lay next to the United States, was sparsely settled, and invited immigration and development. Free and representative government was easily extended over it, and a better, richer and stronger nation was the result. But the annexation of islands of the seas, thousands of miles distant, densely populated with people, most of whom are uncivilized, presented a question in government which the United States had never before faced.

This policy of acquiring and retaining territory remote from our borders is often referred to as imperialism, and has been opposed by a large number of persons.

The President and Congress, acting for the nation, assumed the responsibility of extending the Stars and Stripes over Porto Rico, Guam, Hawaii, Samoa, and the Philippines; and with us now rests the duty of governing the islands, of developing their resources and industries, and of educating and training the people to the duties of citizenship.

Cuba and Porto Rico. At the close of the war, Cuba was placed under the military rule of the United States, with General Leonard Wood in command. Peace and order were restored, and steps taken to form a republic. A constitution, much like that of the United States, was framed by a convention of delegates elected by the Cubans. T. Estrada Palma was chosen the first president, and on May 20, 1902, the government of the island was transferred to the officers of the new republic.

By agreement with Cuba, the United States reserved the right to interfere at any time to protect life, liberty and property, or to prevent foreign nations from getting control of the island. When an insurrection occurred in 1906, due to

alleged frauds in an election, our government a second time placed Cuba under military rule. Peace was secured, a new election was called, and self-government restored January 28, 1909.

In 1900 civil government was granted to Porto Rico, as a territory of the United States.

The Philippines. When the Filipinos learned that the United States intended to hold the islands and not give them independence, they made an unsuccessful attack on the American army under General Otis, at Manila. In the war which followed the natives were defeated in several battles and their forces scattered. Small bands continued for several years to carry on a kind of guerilla warfare, but the capture of Aguinaldo, the Filipino leader, in 1901, by General Funston through a daring piece of strategy, ended all organized war against American rule.

A commission headed by William H. Taft began in 1900 to establish civil government in place of military rule, as fast as the islands were pacified. After the commission had finished its labors, Taft was appointed the first governor. He introduced a system of schools, and modern ideas of various kinds. The natives were gradually led into methods of self-government. The right to vote was given to those who could read and write English or Spanish, or owned \$250 worth of property, or paid \$15 yearly taxes. In 1907 the Filipinos were allowed to elect



PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

a law-making body, called the Philippine Assembly. The government is, however, mainly conducted by a governor and commission of eight men appointed by the President of the United States.

The islands, about 2,000 in number, have a population of over 7,000,000, and embrace 140,000 square miles of territory, an area greater than the combined area of the New England States and New York.

Chinese Outrages by Boxers. American interests in China were seriously threatened in 1900, when a secret society of Chinamen, called "Boxers," began to murder missionaries and Christian Chinamen, and expected to kill or drive out all foreigners and put an end to foreign influence in China. The disorder spread rapidly and hundreds were slain, among them the German ambassador. The foreign ministers and other foreigners who took refuge in Peking, the capital, were besieged by the Boxers and the regular Chinese army, and for two months all the refugees were in imminent danger of death. The United States, Japan and the European nations hurried troops to the scene; the allied armies fought their way to Peking, and finally rescued the besieged.

War was not declared against China, but the speedy arrival of troops from all the leading nations convinced the Chinese that such attacks upon peaceable foreigners must stop. For the destruction of life and property China was compelled to pay a vast sum of money (\$334,000,000), and was required to execute some of the leading Boxers, restore order, and guarantee safety to foreigners.

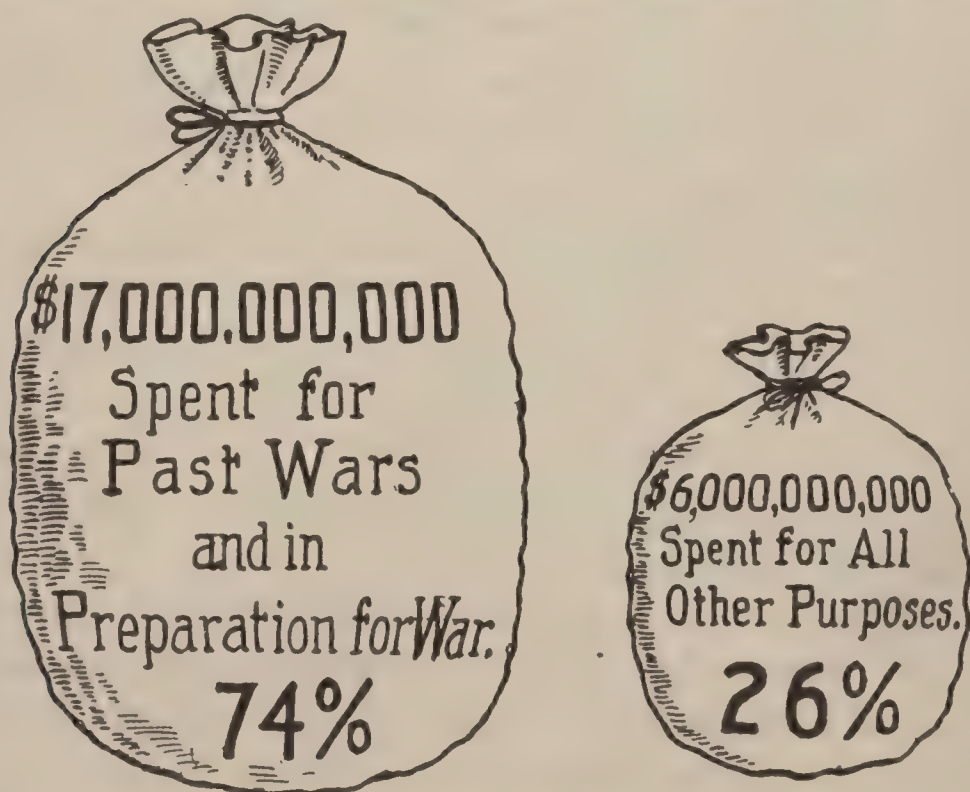
Some of the European nations wished to take territory from China, but Secretary Hay, of the United States, insisted that China should be preserved intact, and that she should keep an open door for trade with all nations.

The Peace Movement. Another problem of great importance is the movement to procure universal peace among the nations. A Permanent International Court of Arbitration was established at The Hague by the treaty of 1899, which was signed by twenty-five powers. Prominent men and able statesmen

in America as well as in other countries are lending their influence to this cause. Among them is Andrew Carnegie, who donated a fund of \$10,000,000, the revenue of which is to be used to promote peace. A number of cases have been tried and settled by the Hague Court—one of the most important being the Atlantic Fisheries question, which so long threatened peaceful relations between Great Britain and the United States.

The advocates of peace are endeavoring to get all nations to disarm, and thus do away with the enormous expense of great navies and armies and remove the temptation to settle disputes by war.

A glance at the cost of the wars of the United States, to say nothing of the terrible sacrifice of human life, will show the importance of this movement. The total expenditure of the government from Washington's administration to 1911 was, in round numbers, \$23,000,000,000. Of this sum, \$17,000,000,000,* or 74 per cent, was spent for war or as a result



of war (war, pensions, interest on war debt, and army and navy in time of peace), and \$6,000,000,000 or 26 per cent was spent for all other purposes.

* For war, \$7,169,990,000; navy, \$2,808,000,000; pensions, \$4,446,000,000; interest, \$3,378,000,000, most of which was due to war expenses.

In 1911, in time of peace, 69 per cent of the total expenses of the government was paid for pensions and for maintenance of the army and navy, and 31 per cent for all other purposes. Cannot future expenditures be turned to better use?

Gold Standard Act, 1900. After the Specie Resumption Act went into effect (January 1, 1879), the Secretary of the Treasury was required to redeem greenbacks in coin (gold or silver). Up to this time all redemptions had been made in gold, but there was a possibility that sometime the Secretary might redeem the notes in silver, and thus disturb the finances of the nation. To avoid this, a new act was passed in 1900, called the Gold Standard Act, which provided:

1. That the gold dollar shall be the standard unit of value, and that all forms of money issued or coined shall be kept "at a parity of value" with gold.

2. That UNITED STATES NOTES AND THE TREASURY NOTES shall be redeemed in gold coin, and that a fund of \$150,000,000 in gold shall be set apart for this purpose.

This act is a pledge on the part of the government that every dollar in paper and silver will continue to circulate for the same number of dollars' worth of gold.

Campaign of 1900. In the campaign of 1900 there were eight presidential nominees, and eleven nominating conventions were held. These conventions were the Republican, Democratic, Middle of the Road, People's, Prohibition, United Christian, Silver Republican, Social Labor, Social Democratic and National parties, and the Anti-Imperial League. The Republicans nominated McKinley and Roosevelt and favored the gold-standard law, the retention of the Philippines, and the construction of an isthmian canal. The Democrats nominated W. J. Bryan and Adlai E. Stevenson. Their platform denounced imperialism and trusts, and favored the isthmian canal and the free coinage of silver at the rate of 16 to 1. McKinley and Roosevelt were elected by a large majority.

Assassination of President McKinley. While President McKinley was a guest at the Pan-American exposition at Buffalo, he was given a public reception in the Temple of Music,

and vast crowds flocked to greet him. Among the number was an anarchist named Czolgosz, who with a pistol concealed under a handkerchief shot the President twice while pretending to shake hands with him. After lingering eight days, McKinley died, September 14, 1901, amidst the grief of a nation. The assassin was executed a few weeks later.

Theodore Roosevelt, by virtue of his position, succeeded to the office of President.

ROOSEVELT'S ADMINISTRATION, 1901-1909.

Theodore Roosevelt. Before Theodore Roosevelt became President he had already attracted attention for efficient services



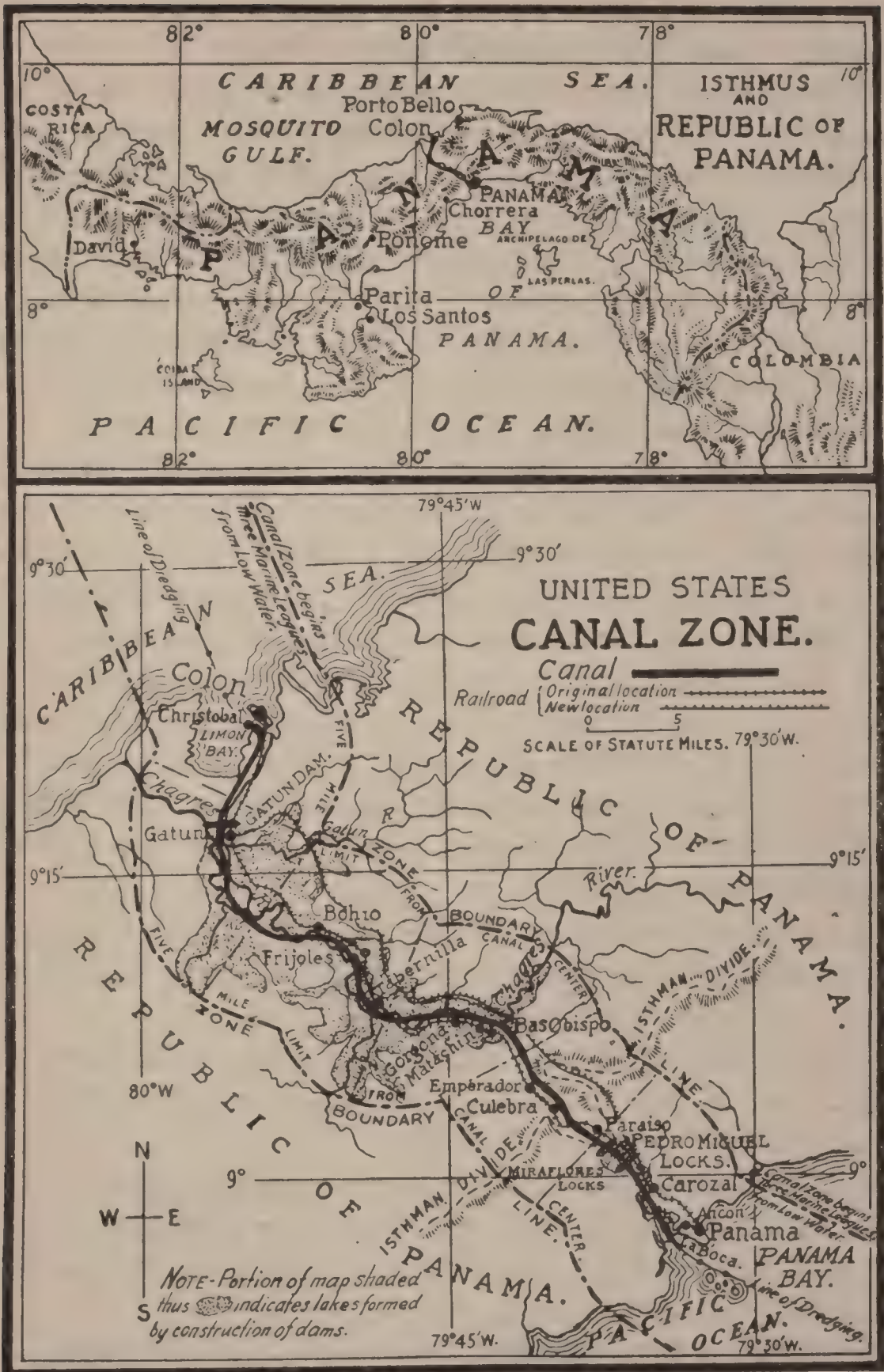
THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

as National Civil Service Commissioner, Police Commissioner of New York City, Assistant Secretary of the Navy, as an officer in the Spanish War, and as Governor of New York. He also had won reputation as a writer of history and biography.

After becoming President, he soon entered upon an aggressive policy which made him one of our great chief executives. His demand for honesty and purity in office, his vigorous foreign policy, his efforts to make trusts and corporations as

well as individuals respect the laws, and his desire to secure equal justice for rich and poor, high and low, combined with a striking personality, rendered him a great favorite among the masses and compelled the respect of all.

The Panama Canal. The importance of a canal connecting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans between the North and South American continents had long been recognized. No one undertook the gigantic task, however, until De Lesseps, at the head of a French company, began the work, 1881. After spending more than \$200,000,000 and finishing only a fifth of the work, the company failed.



The canal is $40\frac{1}{2}$ miles long from shore to shore, has an average bottom width of 649 feet, and a minimum depth of 41 feet. The cities of Panama and Colon, though in the canal zone (the former at the Pacific, the latter at the Atlantic end of the canal), are not under the control of the United States. The canal will probably be completed by 1915.

In 1850 the United States had made a treaty with Great Britain, called the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, by which both nations pledged that neither would alone build an isthmian canal, but that both together might do so. As our country expanded in territorial possessions and grew in wealth and commerce, it became apparent that an isthmian canal would be of more importance to the United States than to any other nation. After frequent attempts, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was abrogated by the ratification, in 1901, of a new treaty, called the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, which left the United States free to build the canal alone. This it decided to do.

Two routes were considered, one through the isthmus of Panama, the other through Nicaragua. After careful investigation, the President selected the Panama route. The United States then purchased the rights of the French Company for \$40,000,000. A treaty made with Colombia, agreeing to give us a right of way, was rejected by the Colombian senate (August, 1903). As a result of this, Panama, a state of Colombia, seceded from Colombia and formed a new republic, which was recognized and supported by the United States. In February, 1904, the United States made a treaty with Panama, with these important provisions:

1. Panama gave a strip of land ten miles in width across the isthmus for canal purposes, which was to be under the perpetual control of the United States.

2. For this territory the United States paid \$10,000,000 cash, and agreed to pay \$250,000 yearly, beginning nine years after the date of the treaty.

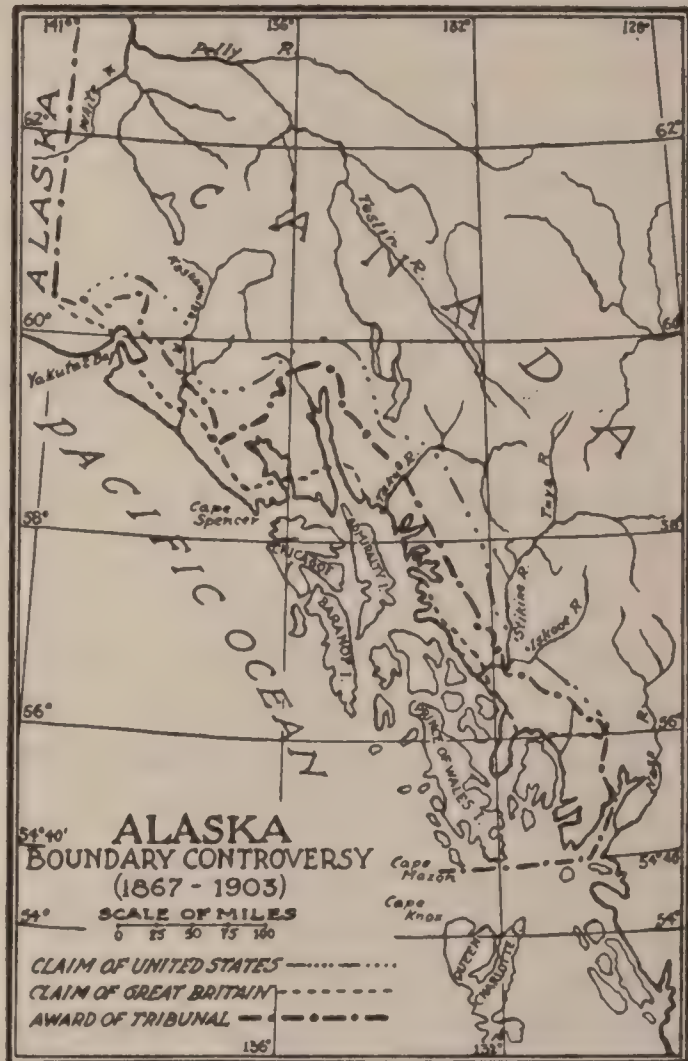
3. The United States guaranteed the independence of Panama, which meant that if Colombia or any other nation should attempt to seize Panama by force of arms, the United States would aid the new republic.

Anthracite Coal Strike. In the spring of 1902 a great strike took place in the anthracite coal regions of Pennsylvania. More than 147,000 men quit work, and as the strike continued on toward winter there began to be serious suffering for want of fuel. The President induced the strikers and the mine-

owners to submit their troubles to arbitration, and a commission appointed for that purpose brought about a compromise which ended the strike.

The Alaskan Boundary. By a treaty of 1825 between Russia and Great Britain, the boundary line separating Alaska and Canada was defined, but not located. When we purchased Alaska, Russian rights were of course transferred to the United States. The discovery of gold in the Klondike and Yukon regions made the location of a definite boundary between Alaska and British America very important, but when an attempt was made to fix the line, trouble arose between the United States and Canada. The claims of the latter nation would have given them several water outlets to the ocean along the Alaskan shore. After some discussion, the question was referred for settlement to a commission of six persons, three from the United States, two from Canada, and one from England. The commissioners met in London, 1903, and, by a vote of four to two, gave a decision very largely in favor of the United States, and denying the Canadians an outlet to the ocean. With praiseworthy fairness of mind, the British representative voted with our commissioners against the claims of his own country.

Department of Commerce and Labor, 1903. The great growth of commerce and the importance of our various in-



dustries in their relation to labor and the people, led Congress, on the advice of the President, to create a new cabinet position, called the Department of Commerce and Labor (1903). The province and duty of the department is "to foster, promote and develop foreign and domestic commerce, the mining, manufacturing, shipping and fishing industries, the labor interests and the transportation facilities of the United States." The Bureau of Corporations, which was created to regulate trusts and corporations, is a part of this department.

St. Louis Exposition, 1904. A great industrial exposition was held in St. Louis in 1904, commemorating the one-hundredth anniversary of the purchase of Louisiana. Like the World's Fair at Chicago (1893), this was an exhibition on a vast scale of things useful and beautiful, from every clime and almost every nation in the world. The estimated cost of buildings and management was \$44,500,000; the total attendance was nearly 19,000,000.

Other industrial expositions on a smaller scale have been held at Buffalo, Charleston, Jamestown (Virginia), Portland (Oregon), Seattle, Omaha, New Orleans, and Atlanta.

Measures to Protect Public Health. Great progress has been made in the opening years of the twentieth century for the preservation of public health. Men are realizing more and more that it is quite as important to protect the public health by sanitary regulations as it is to protect "home industries" by tariff laws. The passage of a "meat inspection" bill, which provides for an inspection of stock-yards and packing-houses, and requires a government label on all meats, has resulted in better and cleaner methods in the packing industry. A national pure-food law was passed in 1906, which places a heavy penalty on those found guilty of adulterating or mislabeling foods or drugs.

Organized warfare has been made on infectious and contagious diseases, particularly tuberculosis. For two decades after the discovery of the consumption bacillus by Dr. Koch, 1882, no great progress was made toward preventing the disease, the most destructive of all human ills; but in 1904 a

national association was formed for the study and prevention of tuberculosis. Since then numerous societies have been organized and measures taken to educate the public in methods of preventing and treating this disease.

Many states have passed child-labor laws, forbidding the employment of young children in various lines of industry, and safeguarding them in youth. Life has been made more secure by requiring the construction of fire-escapes upon large buildings and by improved devices for transportation; and in general the public welfare has been greatly improved by progressive attempts at social betterment.

Election of 1904. In the election of 1904, Theodore Roosevelt and Charles W. Fairbanks were nominated by the Republicans, and Judge Alton B. Parker and Henry G. Davis by the Democrats. The restriction of trusts and tariff revision were the leading issues, the Democrats taking a more radical stand than the Republicans. Both parties spoke for the ultimate independence of the Philippines. As in 1900, a great number of minor parties made nominations. Roosevelt was reelected by the greatest majority of popular votes ever given to any candidate.* He carried every state north of the Mason and Dixon line, and in addition, Maryland and Missouri.

Efforts to Advance the Interests of the People. This popular indorsement of President Roosevelt rather led him to strengthen his strenuous program. He secured the passage of the Hepburn Rate Act (see p. 431), commenced suits against law-breaking trusts, secured the passage of a pure food and drugs act (see p. 478), urged the conservation of the natural resources of the nation, greatly improved the consular service, promoted civil-service reform by placing a large number of positions under civil service, and urged the reclamation of vast areas of arid lands in the West by the introduction of irrigating plants on a large scale by government aid.

By his efforts Russia and Japan, which were engaged in a

* Roosevelt received 7,643,000 votes and Parker received 5,077,000.

bloody war for the possession of Korea and the ports of Manchuria, were brought to conclude a treaty of peace, 1905.

A Great Naval Cruise. An event attracting wide attention in 1907 was the cruise around the world of sixteen American battleships, with a flotilla of torpedo boats and armed cruisers. They sailed from Hampton Roads around South America to San Francisco, thence to Australia, Asia, and Europe, stopping at many important ports on the way. After an absence of fourteen months they returned, having traversed over 45,000 miles.

The Emergency Act. In 1908 an act called the Emergency Act was passed, which provided that by giving security to the government, in case of money stringency, an additional volume of bank notes might be issued.

Presidential Election, 1908. In the campaign of 1908, the Democrats for the third time nominated W. J. Bryan for President, and named John W. Kern for Vice-President. There was a strong popular demand that Roosevelt should again be nominated, but he declined to be a candidate and gave his influence to secure the nomination of William H. Taft. James S. Sherman was nominated for Vice-President.

Trust regulation and tariff revision were leading issues. Both party platforms favored a downward tariff revision. The Republican party declared in favor of strengthening the Sherman Anti-Trust law, while the Democrats favored more radical laws against trusts. Other questions—among them capital and labor, injunctions, banking and currency, railroad regulation, waterways, national resources, income tax, election of United States senators by popular vote, and publicity of campaign expenses—were discussed. Six other parties, the Prohibition, People's, Social Labor, Socialist, United Christian, and Independent, named candidates. Taft and Sherman were elected, having received 362 electoral votes, while Bryan and Kern received 157.

ADMINISTRATION OF WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT, 1909-1913.

Tariff Revision. The Payne-Aldrich law, 1909. Many persons, believing that the high cost of living was due largely to the high duties of the Dingley Act, demanded a reduction of these rates. In accord with these wishes and with party-platform promises, President Taft called a special session of Congress, with the result that a new act, called the Payne-Aldrich law, was passed. This act lowered the rates of a number of articles, raised others, but left most of them unchanged. A majority of the people were not satisfied with the action of Congress. They believed the party had not redeemed its promise, and that the law was shaped more in the interests of the trusts than in favor of the people.



WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT.

One feature of the Payne-Aldrich Tariff is a tax on corporations, requiring them to pay to the government one per cent of their net earnings in excess of \$5,000.

Proposed Amendments to the Constitution. Certain reforms demanded by the people cannot be secured without amendments to the Constitution. Among these are the election of United States senators by a direct vote of the people, and a tax on incomes.

THE INCOME TAX. Congress, in July, 1909, by the necessary two-thirds vote, adopted an amendment authorizing an income tax. If the legislatures of three-fourths of the states now ratify the amendment, as appears will be the case from the number that have already done so, it will become a part of the Constitution. The advocates of the income tax, which is a form of direct tax, believe that people who have amassed vast fortunes should be required to pay a percentage of their yearly income to help support the government, and thus bear

an added burden of taxation because of their greater ability to pay.

ELECTION OF SENATORS BY POPULAR VOTE. The legislatures of two-thirds of the states have passed resolutions proposing an amendment which provides for the election of United States senators by direct vote of the people. The amendment must be approved by Congress and then ratified by three-fourths of the states before it will become a part of the Constitution. People believe that under this system of election, senators will more nearly represent the mass of the people, and be less under the influence of corporations and trusts.



President Taft signing the Act that gave Statehood to Arizona (February 14, 1912), and added the forty-eighth star to the American flag.

New Mexico and Arizona. New Mexico and Arizona, the last of the territories lying within continental United States, were admitted to the Union as states in 1912. It is of interest to note that while they were the last to be admitted, the region within their limits was among the first explored. An army of conquest under Coronado passed through it in 1540, nearly four centuries ago, and DeEspejo planted a Spanish settlement at

Santa Fé a number of years before the English landed at Jamestown and Plymouth Rock.

The admission of New Mexico and Arizona completes an unbroken Union of forty-eight states extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and, with the exception of Alaska, the island possessions and the isthmian canal zone, includes all the territory of the Republic.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What new problems did the United States have to solve after the annexation of the Philippines? What form of government was established in Cuba at the close of the Spanish-American War? What kind of government was established in the Philippines? Tell of the Boxer difficulty in China. What was the Gold Standard Act of 1900? Who was elected President in 1900? Tell of the assassination of President McKinley. Who became President? Give a history of events leading to the construction of the Panama Canal. Of what benefit will it be to the United States?

How had Roosevelt won attention before becoming President? What is the department of Commerce and Labor? Give an account of the Alaskan boundary dispute. What was the St. Louis Exposition? What measures have been taken to protect health? Tell of the naval cruise of 1907. Who was elected President to succeed Roosevelt?

What was the Payne-Aldrich Tariff Bill? What amendments to the United States Constitution have recently been proposed? Of what benefit would they be to the people? What inventions have saved the people much labor? How is electricity used to aid commerce? Manufacturing? Has commerce grown? Has mining? Has agriculture? Has manufacturing? Tell of the natural wealth. Of the new South.

APPENDIX.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature,—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measure.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the state remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions and unacknowledged by our laws, giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury;

For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offenses;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity; and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And, for the support of this declaration, with a

firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing Declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed and signed by the following members:

JOHN HANCOCK.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

JOSIAH BARTLETT.
WILLIAM WHIPPLE.
MATTHEW THORNTON.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.

SAMUEL ADAMS.
JOHN ADAMS.
ROBERT TREAT PAINE.
ELBRIDGE GERRY.

RHODE ISLAND.

STEPHEN HOPKINS.
WILLIAM ELLERY.

CONNECTICUT.

ROGER SHERMAN.
SAMUEL HUNTINGTON.
WILLIAM WILLIAMS.
OLIVER WOLCOTT.

NEW YORK.

WILLIAM FLOYD.
PHILIP LIVINGSTON.
FRANCIS LEWIS.
LEWIS MORRIS.

NEW JERSEY.

RICHARD STOCKTON.
JOHN WITHERSPOON.
FRANCIS HOPKINSON.
JOHN HART.
ABRAHAM CLARK.

PENNSYLVANIA.

ROBERT MORRIS.
BENJAMIN RUSH.
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.
JOHN MORTON.
GEORGE CLYMER.
JAMES SMITH.
GEORGE TAYLOR.
JAMES WILSON.
GEORGE ROSS.

DELAWARE.

CÆSAR RODNEY.
GEORGE READ.
THOMAS M'KEAN.

MARYLAND.

SAMUEL CHASE.
WILLIAM PACA.

THOMAS STONE.

CHARLES CARROLL, of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.

GEORGE WYTHER.
RICHARD HENRY LEE.
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LYMAN HALL.
GEORGE WALTON.

Resolved, That copies of the Declaration be sent to the several assemblies, conventions, and committees, or councils of safety, and to the several commanding officers of the continental troops; that it be proclaimed in each of the United States, at the head of the army.

A TABLE OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES.

<i>Dates</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Gross Area in Square Miles*</i>	<i>Population in 1910</i>
ADOPTED THE CONSTITUTION				
1787, Dec. 7.....	1	Delaware.....	2,050	202,322
1787, Dec. 12.....	2	Pennsylvania.....	45,215	7,665,111
1787, Dec. 18.....	3	New Jersey.....	7,815	2,537,167
1788, Jan. 2.....	4	Georgia.....	59,475	2,609,121
1788, Jan. 9.....	5	Connecticut.....	4,990	1,114,756
1788, Feb. 6.....	6	Massachusetts.....	8,315	3,336,416
1788, April 28.....	7	Maryland.....	12,210	1,295,346
1788, May 23.....	8	South Carolina.....	30,570	1,515,400
1788, June 21.....	9	New Hampshire.....	9,305	430,572
1788, June 25.....	10	Virginia.....	42,450	2,061,612
1788, July 26.....	11	New York.....	49,170	9,113,279
1789, Nov. 21.....	12	North Carolina.....	52,250	2,206,287
1790, May 29.....	13	Rhode Island.....	1,250	542,610
ADMITTED TO THE UNION				
1791, March 4.....	14	Vermont.....	9,565	355,956
1792, June 1.....	15	Kentucky.....	40,400	2,289,905
1796, June 1.....	16	Tennessee.....	42,050	2,184,789
1803, Feb. 19.....	17	Ohio.....	41,060	4,767,121
1812, April 30.....	18	Louisiana.....	48,702	1,656,388
1816, Dec. 11.....	19	Indiana.....	36,350	2,700,876
1817, Dec. 10.....	20	Mississippi.....	46,810	1,797,114
1818, Dec. 3.....	21	Illinois.....	56,650	5,638,591
1819, Dec. 14.....	22	Alabama.....	52,250	2,138,093
1820, March 15.....	23	Maine.....	33,040	742,371
1821, August 10.....	24	Missouri.....	69,415	3,293,335
1836, June 15.....	25	Arkansas.....	53,850	1,574,449
1837, Jan. 26.....	26	Michigan.....	58,915	2,810,173
1845, March 3.....	27	Florida.....	58,680	751,139
1845, Dec. 29.....	28	Texas.....	265,780	3,896,542
1846, Dec. 28.....	29	Iowa.....	56,025	2,224,771
1848, May 29.....	30	Wisconsin.....	56,040	2,333,860
1850, Sept. 9.....	31	California.....	158,360	2,377,549
1858, May 11.....	32	Minnesota.....	83,365	2,075,708
1859, Feb. 14.....	33	Oregon.....	96,030	672,765
1861, Jan. 29.....	34	Kansas.....	82,080	1,690,949
1863, June 19.....	35	West Virginia.....	24,780	1,221,119
1864, Oct. 31.....	36	Nevada.....	110,700	81,875
1867, March 1.....	37	Nebraska.....	77,510	1,192,214
1876, August 1.....	38	Colorado.....	103,925	799,024
1889, Nov. 2.....	39	North Dakota.....	70,795	577,056
1889, Nov. 2.....	40	South Dakota.....	77,650	583,888
1889, Nov. 8.....	41	Montana.....	146,080	376,053
1889, Nov. 11.....	42	Washington.....	69,180	1,141,990
1890, July 3.....	43	Idaho.....	84,800	325,594
1890, July 10.....	44	Wyoming.....	97,890	145,965
1896, Jan. 4.....	45	Utah.....	84,970	373,351
1907, Nov. 16.....	46	Oklahoma.....	70,057	1,657,155
1912, Jan. 6.....	47	New Mexico.....	122,580	327,301
1912, Feb. 14.....	48	Arizona.....	113,020	204,354
ORGANIZED				
1868, July 27.....		Alaska.....	590,844	64,356
1791, March 3.....		District of Columbia.....	70	331,069
1900, June 14.....		Hawaii.....	6,449	191,909
UNDER CIVIL GOVERNMENT.....				
		{ Porto Rico.....	3,435	1,118,012
		{ Philippines.....	115,026	7,635,426

* Gross area includes water as well as land surface.
 These statistics are taken from the Thirteenth Census of the United States.

A TABLE OF THE PRESIDENTS.

No.	Name	State	Born	Died	Served	By Whom Elected	Vice-President
1	George Washington	Virginia	1732	1799	2 terms, 1789-1797	All the people	John Adams.
2	John Adams	Massachusetts	1735	1826	1 term, 1797-1801	Federalists	Thomas Jefferson.
3	Thomas Jefferson	Virginia	1743	1826	2 terms, 1801-1809	{ Democrats- Republicans.	{ Aaron Burr. George Clinton.
4	James Madison	Virginia	1751	1836	2 terms, 1809-1817	{ Democratic- Republicans.	{ George Clinton. Elbridge Gerry.
5	James Monroe	Virginia	1758	1831	2 terms, 1817-1825	{ Democrats- Republicans.	Daniel D. Tompkins.
6	John Quincy Adams	Massachusetts	1767	1848	1 term, 1825-1829	House of Representatives	John C. Calhoun.
7	Andrew Jackson	Tennessee	1767	1845	2 terms, 1829-1837	Democrats	{ John C. Calhoun. Martin Van Buren.
8	Martin Van Buren	New York	1782	1862	1 term, 1837-1841	Democrats	Richard M. Johnson.
9	William Henry Harrison	Ohio	1773	1841	1 month, March 4-April 4, 1841	Whigs	John Tyler.
10	John Tyler	Virginia	1790	1862	3 yrs., 11 mos., 1841-1845	Whigs	George M. Dallas.
11	James K. Polk	Tennessee	1795	1849	1 term, 1845-1849	Democrats	Millard Fillmore.
12	Zachary Taylor	Louisiana	1784	1850	1 yr., 4 mos., 5 days, 1849-1850	Whigs	William R. King.
13	Millard Fillmore	New York	1800	1874	2 yrs., 7 mos., 26 days, 1850-1853	Whigs	John C. Breckinridge.
14	Franklin Pierce	New Hampshire	1804	1869	1 term, 1853-1857	Democrats	Hannibal Hamlin.
15	James Buchanan	Pennsylvania	1791	1868	1 term, 1857-1861	Democrats	{ Andrew Johnson. Schuyler Colfax.
16	Abraham Lincoln	Illinois	1809	1865	1 term, 1 mo., 11 days, 1861-1865	Republicans	{ Henry Wilson. William A. Wheeler.
17	Andrew Johnson	Tennessee	1808	1875	3 yrs., 10 mos., 19 days, 1865-1869	Republicans	Chester A. Arthur.
18	Ulysses S. Grant	Illinois	1822	1885	2 terms, 1869-1877	Republicans	Thomas A. Hendricks.
19	Rutherford B. Hayes	Ohio	1822	1893	1 term, 1877-1881	Republicans	Levi P. Morton.
20	James A. Garfield	Ohio	1831	1881	6 mos., 15 days, 1881	Republicans	Adlai E. Stevenson.
21	Chester A. Arthur	New York	1830	1886	3 yrs., 5 mos., 15 days, 1881-1885	Republicans	{ Garret A. Hobart. Theodore Roosevelt.
22	Grover Cleveland	New York	1837	1908	1 term, 1885-1889	Democrats	Charles W. Fairbanks.
23	Benjamin Harrison	Indiana	1833	1901	1 term, 1889-1893	Republicans	James S. Sherman.
24	Grover Cleveland	New York	1837	1908	1 term, 1893-1897	Democrats	
25	William McKinley	Ohio	1843	1901	1 term, 6 mos., 10 days, 1897-1901	Republicans	
26	Theodore Roosevelt	New York	1858	1909	1 term, 3 yrs. 5 mos., 20 days, 1901-1909	Republicans	
27	William H. Taft	Ohio	1857	Serving	Serving	Republicans	

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 Aguinaldo, (ä gē nāl'do).
 Aix la Chapelle, (ās lā shā pēl').
 Aleutian, (ā lū'shī an).
 Americus Vespucius, (ā mēr'ī cūs vēs pū'shūs).
 Amherst, (ām'erst).
 Andre, (än'drā).
 Antietam, (än tē'tām).
 Arkansas, (är'kan sạ').
 Aristotle, (är'is tōt'l.).
 Ayllon, (īl yōn').
 Azores, (a zōrz').
 Beauregard, (bō'reh gard').
 Bonhomme Richard, (bō nōm'rē shär').
 Buena Vista, (bwā'nā vīs'tà).
 Burgoyne, (bêr goin').
 Cartier, (kar'tyā').
 Cervera, (thâr vā'rä).
 Champlain, (shām plān').
 Cherbourg, (shēr'bûrg).
 Chickamauga, (chĭk'a mạ'g̃a).
 Cibola, (sē'bōlā).
 Coligny, (cō lēn'yē).
 Credit Mobilier, (crēd'it mō bē'lyā).
 Cortez, (kor'tēz).
 Decatur, (de k̄ā'tur).
 Diaz, (dē'ās), Bartholomew.
 D'Estaing, (dēs tăn').
 El Caney, (el k̄ā'nā).
 Ericsson, ěr'ĭk sòn).
 Euphrates, (ū frā'tēz).
 Eutaw, (ū'tạ).

Faneuil, (făn'el).
 Frobisher, (fröb'ish er).
 Frontenac, (frön'te näk').
 Gaspe, (gas'pā').
 Genet, (zheh nă').
 Genoa, (jěn'o a).
 Gila, (hē'lä).
 Gorges, (gôr'jěz,) Ferdinando.
 Guadaloupe Hidalgo, (ga'da lōöp'ē däl'gō).
 Guerriere, (gār ruār').
 Guiana, (gē ä'nä).
 Haverhill, (hā'ver ĩl).
 Hawaii, (hä wī'ē).
 Huguenot, (hū'gē nőt).
 Iberville, (ē ber vėl').
 Iroquois, (ĩr ô kwoi').
 Iuka, (ĩ oō'kə).
 Joliet, (zho le ā').
 Kearny, (kär'nĩ).
 Kearsarge, (kēr'särj).
 Kosciusko, (kös sı us'ko).
 LaSalle, (lä sāl').
 Leyden, (lĩ'den).
 Lopez, (lō'pěz).
 Marquette, (mär'kět').
 Massasoit, (mäs ə soıt).
 Menendez, (mă năn'deth).
 Narragansett, (när ə găn set).
 Narvaez, (när vā eth').
 Nueces, (nwā'sēs).
 Oglethorpe, (ōgl'thōrp).
 Oriskany, (ōr ĩs'kän ĩ).
 Oswego, (ös wē'gō).
 Pakenham, (pak'en əm).
 Pequot, (pē'kwőt).
 Philippine, (fil'ĩp ĩn).
 Piscataqua, (pıs căt'ə kwə).

- Pizarro, (pē zär'ro).
Ponce de Leon, (pōn'thā dā lā ōn').
Pontiac, (pōn'tī äk).
Porto Rico, (por'tō rē'kō).
Portuguese, (pōr'tū gēz).
Powhatan, (pow ha tăn').
- Pulaski, (pū las'kee), Count
Rio Grande, (rē'o gränd').
Rochambeau, (ro'shōn'bō').
San Juan, (sän hōō'än').
Schuyler, (skī'ler).
Sioux, (sōō).
Stuyvesant, (stī've sant).
Tecumseh, (tē kŭm'se).
Utrecht, (ū'trēkt).
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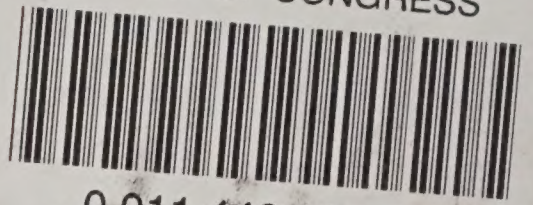
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